Educating Limited-English-Proficient Students in Washington State

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CONTENTS

Abbreviations

ELL	English language learners
ESL	English-as-a-second language
FTE	full-time equivalent
ITBS	Iowa Test of Basic Skills
LEP	limited English proficient
OSPI	Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction
WASL	Washington Assessment of Student Learning

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Background

As Washington becomes a more diverse society, the state's *transitional bilingual instruction program* is serving an increasing number and percentage of students who speak languages other than English and have English language skill deficiencies that impair their learning in regular classrooms. Students with limited English proficiency (LEP) often have lower levels of academic performance, higher rates of grade retention, and higher dropout rates than their English-fluent peers. As the number of LEP students grows and higher academic standards are put in place, issues related to meeting the needs of these students are getting more scrutiny. The Legislature requires the Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction to review the program each year, and the Governor requested additional information related to the program.

Some have been concerned about the rising cost of the program. The program provides extra funding to districts for services to these students. In school year 1999–2000, the state provided about $38 million for the program. This total was 11 percent more than the previous year due to increases in LEP enrollment and per pupil funding. Districts supplemented state funding with about $12 million in local funds. Hence, districts spent about $50 million in state and local funds educating LEP students last year.

Results in Brief

Our analysis of data from the program and review of recent research on different approaches used to educate LEP students found that students' long-term academic performance is better when they have significant exposure to instruction in both English and their primary language. However, most LEP students in the state receive little or no instruction in their primary language. Although most program funding is spent on staff-related costs, the current lack of qualified teachers that speak other languages and the number of different languages spoken by students across the range of grades within a district limit the possibility of many schools providing instruction in both English and students' primary language. We also found that many factors influence the amount of time students spend in the state program. A student's background, such as family socioeconomic status and amount of education received before entering the program, can influence the amount of time spent in the program. How the program is structured and administered also can affect the time spent in the program. These issues need more attention in the future.

Staffing & Instruction

Most funds for educating LEP students are spent for staff salaries and benefits. One obstacle facing the education of LEP students is the shortage of qualified teachers to provide instruction. Although research has consistently found that students perform better when provided more intensive instruction in their primary language, few students receive this type of instruction in part because of this

relative shortage of qualified teachers. Most instruction for LEP students in Washington is provided by instructional aides who often lack much formal training in second language learning strategies. These aides typically provide intensive instruction in English-as-a-second language (ESL) in a classroom setting but provide little or no instruction in the students' primary language. Thus, the program is more accurately called an ESL program. Fewer than half of all teachers of LEP students have an ESL endorsement.

Students Served

The number of LEP students continued to grow in school year 1999–2000, although at a slower rate than in the previous year. The increase is influenced by several factors, including the faster growth of the non-English speaking student population due to higher immigration and birth rates, and a higher rate of students entering rather than exiting the program. LEP students are not evenly distributed across the state—some districts serve a large number and/or a high percentage of LEP students, while other districts serve few or no LEP students. Some districts have experienced a dramatic increase in the number of LEP students they serve, while others are serving fewer LEP students. Half of all LEP students are found in Grades K–3, and many are served by other state and/or federal programs as well.

Languages Spoken

A total of 159 different languages were represented in the program in school year 1999-2000. Spanish was spoken by more students (62 percent) than students speaking all the other languages combined. Six other languages were spoken by at least 1,000 students, and about 85 percent of all LEP students in Washington spoke either Spanish or one of these other six languages. The number of students speaking the language of new refugee groups (Bosnian, Somali, Ukrainian) has grown dramatically, while the number speaking the major southeast Asian languages (Vietnamese, Cambodian, Lao) has declined. Some districts have many different languages spoken among their LEP students, while many other districts serve only LEP students whose primary language is Spanish.

Length of Stay & Student Achievement

The program is intended to provide temporary services for up to three years until LEP students can develop adequate English language skills. About 25 percent of the state's LEP students left the program in school year 1999–2000, and a majority had been in the program no more than two years. However, nearly 28 percent of the students have remained in the program for more than three years.

Many factors can affect a student's length of stay in the program. Exiting the program depends on meeting certain academic achievement standards, and learning academic terminology in another language can take years. Thus, LEP students tend to have lower scores on achievement tests. Test scores are also influenced by socioeconomic factors—districts and schools with higher percentages of LEP students tend to have higher percentages of students from low-income families. Students who come from poor families typically have lower test scores, and those who are *both* poor and not proficient in English have a higher risk of academic failure.

Other factors affect the length of stay in the program. Those served in special education or migrant programs and with lower levels of previous education and English-speaking ability when entering the program average more time in the program. Students speaking certain languages tend to stay in the program longer. Some factors relate to the way a program is designed, such as the quality or type of program administered, the extent to which the primary language is used in instruction, and the relative ease with which students enter and exit the program. National research has found that the more instruction provided in the students' primary language, the better their academic achievement. However, most LEP students in Washington receive little or no instruction in their primary language.

Next Steps

This report identifies a number of issues that need further scrutiny. Action is already underway to address some of these issues. However, other issues need to be explored in order to improve the effectiveness of the program and ultimately the performance of LEP students.

INTRODUCTION
SECTION 1

BACKGROUND

The United States is becoming a more ethnically and linguistically diverse society. Over 90 percent of recent immigrants come from non-English-speaking countries, and many of these immigrants arrive with little or no formal education. Minority groups also have higher birth rates, and many native-born ethnic group members do not speak English in the home. These immigration and birth patterns are contributing to the increase in the linguistic diversity of our public schools. This is especially true in the West and in urban areas where limited English proficient (LEP)[1] students are concentrated. Nationwide, the number of LEP students increased by an estimated 57 percent between 1990 and 1997. Washington ranked 14th in terms of the percentage of LEP students in public schools in 1995–96.[2]

There is great variation among students whose primary language is not English. Some are recent arrivals from foreign countries while others have been born and raised in the United States. The level of education received prior to immigrating to the U.S., family socioeconomic status, and cultural background also differ. Students coming from the same country may speak different languages or dialects. In addition, differences exist within groups. For example, the first wave of southeast Asian refugees was comprised of highly educated people, while subsequent refugees tended to be less well educated. Thus, generalizations about any group of students may mask important background characteristics that are important to understand when designing appropriate curricular interventions.

Students not proficient in using the English language have a higher risk of academic failure. When children with little or no previous exposure to the English language enter the public schools, they are often unable to profit fully from instruction in English. Research has found that LEP students tend to have lower levels of academic performance in math and reading, higher rates of grade retention, and much higher dropout rates than their English-fluent peers.[3] As the number of LEP students in public schools continues to grow and higher academic standards are put into place, issues related to meeting the needs of these students and assessing their academic progress are receiving greater scrutiny.

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[1] These students are also referred to as English language learners (ELL).

[2] Nearly all the states ranked higher than Washington were in the West, according to a 1998 report by the National Clearinghouse on Bilingual Education.

[3] In 1992, students speaking English with difficulty dropped out of school at four times the rate of their English-fluent peers.

WASHINGTON'S PROGRAM FOR LEP STUDENTS

Educating LEP students is primarily a state and local responsibility. While the federal government provides support for LEP students through various programs, districts say they rely heavily on state aid and local revenue to fund English-language acquisition programs.[4] The Transitional Bilingual Instruction Act of 1979, which was amended in 1984, provides extra state funding to Washington districts for services to students who have a primary language other than English *and* have English language skill deficiencies that impair their learning in regular classrooms.[5] The major objective of the *transitional bilingual instruction program* is for students to develop competence in English language skills. Instructional assistance is restricted to students who have very little or no English speaking ability and are in most need of help, as defined by the eligibility requirements.[6]

Bilingual education is the use of two languages as mediums of instruction, English and one other. The non-English language is a bridge, a language the child understands, that can be used while English skills are being acquired. As a student learns more English, there is a corresponding decrease in the use of the primary language. This is the "transitional" aspect of the program as established in Washington. Although the program is for "bilingual instruction," relatively few students in the program actually receive much formal instruction in their primary language. Thus, the program could more accurately be called an ESL program.

Program Funding

Districts receive extra state funding for each eligible LEP student. This funding is allocated based on the average number of LEP students enrolled each month. In school year 1999–00, the state provided about $691 for each of the 55,651 LEP students.[7] The rate per eligible student is $711 for school year 2000–01, which is about 3 percent more than in school year 1999–00. The per pupil amount is adjusted annually and is about 18 percent more than the base amount provided for all students.

In school year 1999–00, the state provided a total of $38.4 million for the program, an 11 percent increase from the previous year. Figure 1-1 shows the growth of state funding for the program over the last 15 years. The figure does not

[4] See *Public Education: Title I Services Provided to Students With Limited English Proficiency,* U.S. General Accounting Office, December 1999.

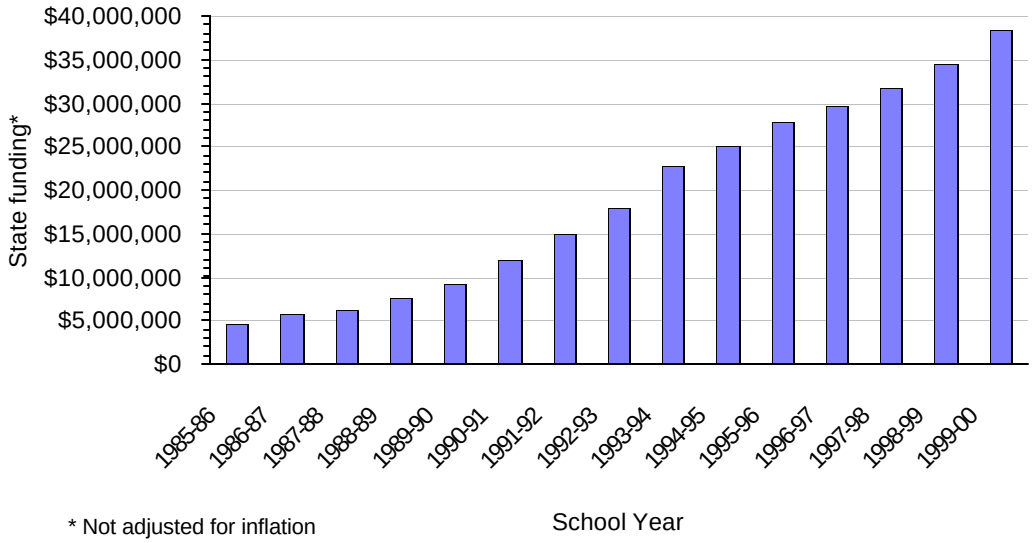
[5] Beginning in 1979, LEP students were funded along with certain special education students as part of a "special needs" grant. In 1984, funding for the program was set up as a separate allocation. Other program changes were made in the 1984 law, including how eligible students are identified.

[6] The transitional bilingual instruction program operates under the authority of RCW 28.A180.060 and as detailed in chapter 392-160 WAC.

[7] This was the *average* number of students enrolled in the program each month, as reported by districts on the most recent P223-H report. The *total* number of LEP students served by the program was 66,281—see Sections 3 for more information on enrollment issues.

adjust the funding amounts for inflation. Appropriations for the 1999–2001 biennial budget were for $73.5 million.

Figure 1-1: Growth in Program Funding



The state is not the only source of revenue for the program. Districts can choose to supplement their state program funds with funds raised at the local level for programs educating LEP students. In school year 1999–00, districts used about $11.9 million in local funding for educating LEP students. In addition, various federal programs can be used to support LEP students, including funding from Title I and programs for migrant, immigrant, and special education. (Appendix A provides more information on these programs.) However, the federal funding is minimal compared to state and local funding.

Program Eligibility

Program funding is intended for those with the greatest need, so not all students who have a primary language other than English may be eligible. To be eligible, a student must have a primary language other than English *and* their English language skills must be sufficiently deficient or absent to impair learning in an all-English classroom. The program is for eligible students in grades K–12.[8]

To identify eligible pupils, districts conduct an initial assessment to determine a student's language proficiency. Students are eligible if they score below a minimum level on an oral language proficiency test administered by the district.[9]

[8] Beginning in school year 1997–98, prekindergarten students were no longer eligible for bilingual program services.

[9] Most districts use the Language Assessment Scales (LAS or Pre-LAS) to determine initial eligibility. The LAS cut-off score for eligibility is Level 3–Limited English Speaker and the range of the total score is between 65–74. A bilingual advisory committee is currently studying the assessments in order to recommend that only one be used statewide.

An annual reassessment must be made for a student to continue in the program. Eligibility ends whenever the student scores above the 35th percentile in the reading and language arts portions of an approved norm-referenced written test. Students cannot stay in the program more than three school years unless their English language skills remain below the 35th percentile. Districts must have empirical evidence to keep a student in the program for more than three years.[10]

OBJECTIVES, SCOPE, AND METHODOLOGY

The Legislature requires the Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction (OSPI) to review the bilingual program and report each year on the results of that review. In addition, in May 2000 Governor Locke requested OSPI to use available resources to provide updated information related to LEP and bilingual programs to his office and the Legislature by December 2000. This report provides information on the bilingual program for LEP students in school year 1999–2000 as well as historical information. It also provides information requested by the Governor. Specifically, this report discusses the following topics:

- Staffing patterns and instruction to implement the program.
- Enrollment patterns of students who have participated in the program and how the patterns have changed over time.
- The languages spoken by students in the program.
- The amount of time that students spend in the program, the impact that programs for LEP students have on their academic achievement and the length of stay in these types of programs, and factors influencing the length of stay.

To address these topics, we examined data obtained from all 185 districts that had an approved state program for LEP students in school year 1999–2000. The data were provided on the district annual reports (see Appendix F). We also used data reported by districts in previous years. The district reports were checked for consistency, and districts were contacted when discrepancies were found. However, the accuracy of the data in these reports was not verified.[11]

Since school-level data are not collected on the program, most of the report provides data aggregated at the district level.[12] To supplement the district-level data, we analyzed selected student-level information obtained from 46 districts that enrolled 80 percent of all LEP students in the state.[13] We also reviewed recent research related to bilingual education and instruction of LEP students.[14]

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[10] The State Auditor is examining the evidence that selected districts have used to keep a student in the program.

[11] See Section 2 for information about data limitations.

[12] Districts began reporting the number of LEP students at the school building in the fall of 2000.

[13] Data for over 15,000 LEP students in selected grades at 618 schools were analyzed.

[14] Tom Stritikus from the University of Washington and Patrick Manyak from California State University/Fullerton reviewed the relevant literature. OSPI also published a summary of research on the education of LEP students in 1999.

STAFFING AND INSTRUCTION
SECTION 2

Nearly all expenditures used to educate LEP students are for staff, mainly salaries. Although research has found that students perform better when provided more intensive instruction in their primary language, few students receive this type of instruction. One reason for this is the relative shortage of qualified teachers. Most instruction for LEP students in Washington is provided by instructional aides, typically in a classroom setting with some ESL instruction. Less than half the teachers in the program have an endorsement in teaching either ESL or bilingual education.

MOST EXPENDITURES ARE STAFF-RELATED

In school year 1999–00, expenditures for educating LEP students totaled $52.3 million. Of this amount, about 73 percent came from the state, 23 percent came from the local districts themselves, and 4 percent came from federal sources.[15]

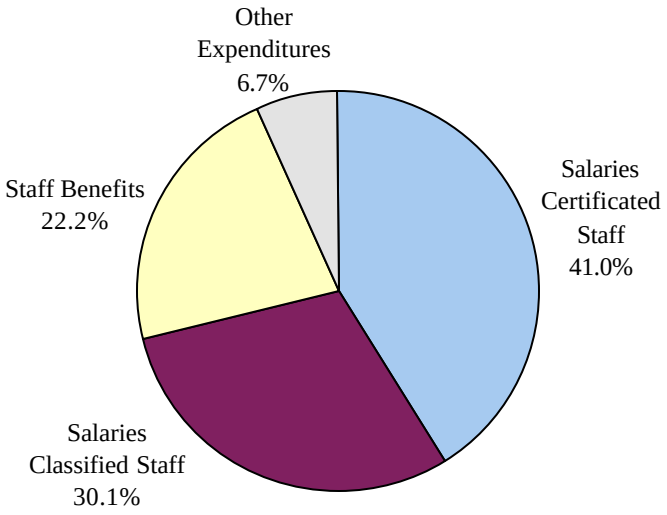
Of the nonfederal funding for educating LEP students, 95 percent was spent on instruction-related activities, mainly in the form of salaries and benefits for teachers and instructional aides. Figures 2-1 and 2-2 show the amounts and proportions spent on various categories in school year 1999–00.

Figure 2-1: Staff Costs Account for Most Expenditures for LEP Students

Note: Excludes expenditures related to federal funding.

[15] The state does not keep track of how funds from different revenue sources are spent on various programs, so an analysis of expenditures for the program includes other sources of funding besides state funds designated for the bilingual program.

Figure 2-2: Proportion of Expenditures Spent for the Bilingual Program



STAFFING ISSUES

LEP students need access to properly qualified, highly skilled teachers in order to meet high standards. Studies have found that teachers need to have certain knowledge, skills, and attitudes to be effective with LEP students.[16] However, one obstacle facing the education of LEP students is the shortage of qualified staff to provide instruction. According to a study conducted for the U.S. Department of Education,[17] about 10 percent of teachers of LEP students were certified to teach bilingual education, and 8 percent were fully certified to teach English-as-a-second language (ESL).[18] Many districts report difficulties recruiting teachers qualified to teach students with limited English proficiency. Providing training to teachers with LEP students also appears to be a problem. During school year 1997–98, less than 40 percent of teachers nationally reported having received some training to teach students from culturally and linguistically diverse

[16] For more information about the characteristics of effective teachers of LEP students, see *Effective Instruction For Language Minority Students: The Teacher,* Journal of Education, 173 (2), Garcia, E., 1992; and *Culturally Responsive Pedagogy for the1990's and Beyond,* Educational Testing Service, Villegas, A., 1991.

[17] See *Descriptive Study of Services to Limited English Proficient Students,* Vol. 1 and 2, Fleischman, H. and Hopstock, P., Development Associates, Inc., 1993.

[18] In ESL instruction, students with limited English proficiency are provided instruction in using the English language with little or no use of their native language. Bilingual instruction includes instruction in a student's native language. Nationally, public schools enrolling LEP students are more likely to provide ESL programs than bilingual programs. Both approaches may be used within the same school or district. For more information on how ESL and bilingual instruction differ, see *Limited English Proficiency: A Growing and Costly Educational Challenge Facing Many School Districts,* U.S. General Accounting Office, 1994.

backgrounds.[19] A study conducted for the Legislature found similar problems in Washington.[20]

In the current education reform movement that aims to have *all* students meet high academic standards, schools face a challenge to find and train staff to meet the needs of the growing number of students with limited English proficiency. The newly formed Professional Educator Standards Board has recommended that several alternative certification methods be used to increase the number of teachers for ESL programs.

Qualifications and Training

The qualifications of teachers of LEP students funded by the state program in Washington and their training are significantly better than the national numbers mentioned above. Of the Washington teachers who provided instruction to LEP students in school year 1999–2000, 45 percent had an ESL endorsement and 17 percent had a bilingual endorsement. (Some teachers have both an ESL and bilingual endorsement.)

In terms of training, 96 of the 185 districts (52%) involved in the program provided some inservice training on ESL and bilingual education to teachers. More districts (64 percent) provided such training to instructional aides. Training on *multicultural* issues was less—about 30 percent of the districts provided such training to either teachers or aides.

- Teachers in the program averaged more than 10 hours of inservice training in ESL or bilingual education. Instructional aides averaged more than eight hours of such training.
- Teachers in the program averaged about four hours of multicultural training during the year, and aides averaged about three hours of such training.

The above numbers apply to staff funded by the state program and do not apply to staff who may be educating LEP students and who are paid from other funding sources. Data are not provided on the qualifications and training of staff hired by a district with other funds and are providing instruction to LEP students. Some districts have a significant number of staff hired to educate LEP students who are not funded by the state program.

Types of Staff

Districts have relied more heavily on instructional aides than certificated teachers to provide instruction to LEP students. In school year 1999–00, the number of

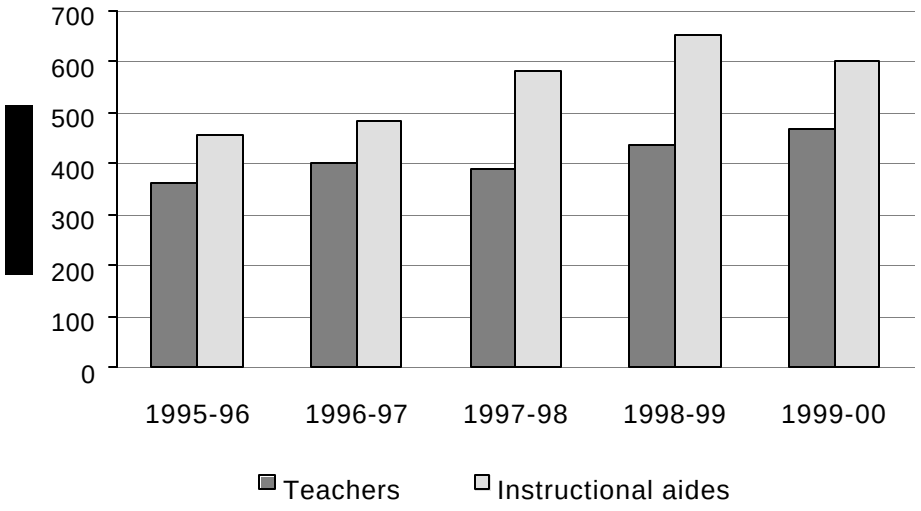
[19] See *Study of Education Resources and Federal Funding: Preliminary Report,* U.S. Department of Education, 1999.
[20] See *K-12 Transitional Bilingual Instruction Program,* Report 92-3, Legislative Budget Committee, February 1992.

teachers involved in the program increased while the number of aides declined by a larger amount. Thus, the number of FTE staff involved in the program decreased slightly. In school year 1999–00, there were 2,556 staff involved in providing instruction in the program—1,722 were instructional aides, more than double the number of teachers (834). In terms of full-time equivalent (FTE) staff involved in the program, aides represented about 56 percent of the total FTEs in school year 1999–00, which is less than in the previous two years. Table 2-1 and Figure 2-3 provide more information on the FTE staffing trends.

Table 2-1: Five-Year Staffing Trends (in FTEs)

Type of Staff (FTE)	1995–96	1996–97	1997–98	1998–99	1999–00
Certificated staff	362	402	389	435	467
Percent of total	44.3%	45.4%	40.0%	40.0%	43.8%
Classified staff	455	483	584	654	600
Percent of total	55.7%	54.6%	60.0%	60.0%	56.2%
Total FTEs	817	885	973	1,089	1,067

Figure 2-3: Change in FTE Staff Involved in the Bilingual Program



Student/Staff Ratios

With more instructional aides involved in the program, the LEP students per *aide* ratio is lower than the ratio of LEP students per *teacher*. The student/staff ratios can be measured in different ways by using the total number of students and staff in the program, the average number of students served per month, and the total number of FTE staff. The ratios are slightly smaller when measured in terms of the average number of students served and much larger when measured in terms of FTE staff. Table 2-2 shows various ratios for school year 1999–00. The average number of students per FTE teacher is about the same as the previous

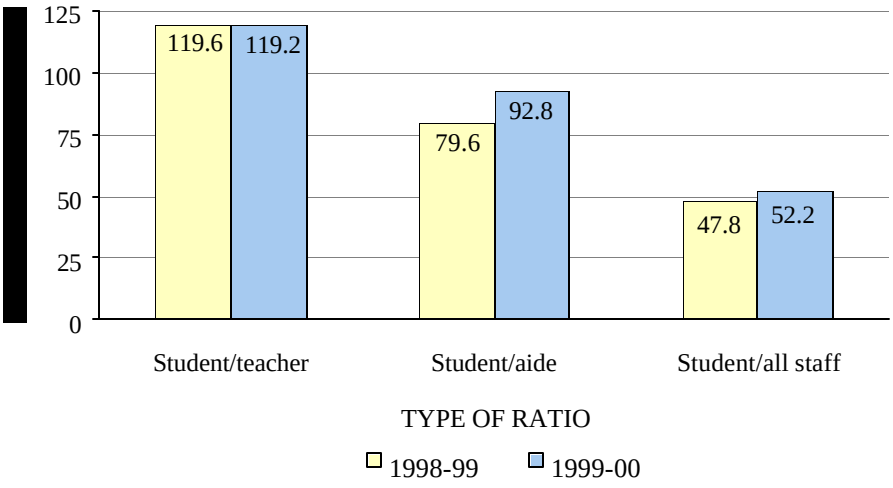
year because more teachers are involved in the program, but the ratio of LEP students per FTE staff is higher because more students were served and fewer FTE staff were involved in the program (see Figure 2-4).

Table 2-2: LEP Student/Bilingual Program Staff Ratios (School Year 1999–00)

	Teachers	Aides	All Staff
Total staff	834	1,722	2,556
Staff FTE	467	600	1,067
Student/staff ratio[1] (based on total students and total staff)	79.5	38.5	25.9
Student/staff ratio[2] (based on average number of students served and total staff)	66.7	32.3	21.8
Student/staff ratio[2] (based on average number of students served and FTE staff)	119.2	92.8	52.2

[1] Ratio based on the total (66,281) number of LEP students served.
[2] Ratio based on the average (55,651) number of LEP students served.

Figure 2-4: LEP Student/Program Staff Ratios, Two-Year Trend



INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES AND PROGRAMS

Nationwide a variety of instructional strategies and approaches have been implemented in recent decades with the goal of teaching the large LEP student population. These range from having no instruction in the student's primary

language and providing only ESL instruction to providing instruction over an extended period in both English and the student's primary language.[21]

In Washington, the services provided to LEP students are described in two ways: *instructional focus* and *program model*. Instructional focus describes the methods by which students are actually instructed with differing emphases and methodologies. Program model describes the setting or circumstances in which the services are delivered. These approaches may have different types of effectiveness.

Instructional Focus

Most (68%) LEP students receive little or no instruction in their primary language, according to district reports. Due to staffing constraints and the number of languages that are spoken in some districts, it may not be possible to provide any instruction in a student's primary language. Most districts rely on intensive ESL instruction to educate LEP students. Districts with large numbers of LEP students speaking a particular language have a greater ability to offer instruction in that language.

Districts report their instructional focus in four categories, which are defined below. In addition, some districts report that they provide instruction using some other strategy or a combination of strategies.

1. **Primary Language Development:** Language development in both English and the primary language is the focus. The goal is to enable the student to become academically and socially fluent in both languages.

2. **Academic Language Development:** Academic skills and literacy are provided in the primary language with additional intensive ESL instruction. When the student reaches moderate English reading competency, academic instruction in the primary language is discontinued.

3. **Limited Assistance in the Primary Language:** Students are provided with intensive ESL instruction with additional basic skills and literacy offered in English with limited assistance in the primary language. This may include academic tutoring provided by noncertificated personnel, translations, interpretations, etc.

4. **No Primary Language Support:** Students are provided with intensive ESL instruction and may receive other special instructional services which enable them to participate in regular all-English classrooms.

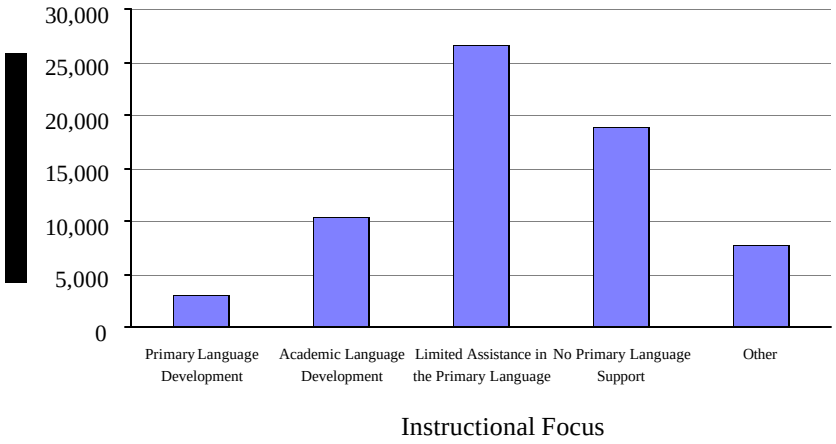
[21] The Supreme Court has ruled that it is illegal to place a student with limited English proficiency into a regular English-only classroom and provide no special instruction support (Lau v. Nichols).

Table 2-3 and Figure 2-5 report the number of students served in each of the four state-defined instructional focus categories. Because students may be served in more than one category, the totals reported exceed the unduplicated total number served.

Table 2-3: Enrollment by Type of Instructional Focus (School Year 1999–00)

Instructional Focus	Number of Students	Percent of Total
Primary Language Development	3,034	4.5%
Academic Language Development	10,471	15.6%
Limited Assistance in the Primary Language	26,623	39.9%
No Primary Language Support	18,781	28.1%
Other	7,813	11.7%

Figure 2-5: Enrollment by Type of Instructional Focus (School Year 1999–00)



Program Model

While the instructional focus differentiates the instructional strategies used, the program model describes the setting or circumstances in which the services are delivered. Districts report five categories of program models, which are defined below.

1. **Self-Contained Classroom:** Schedules students to an all-bilingual classroom that offers instruction in English/language arts appropriate for the student's level of English competence and sometimes provides academic instruction in the primary language. The bilingual reading/language arts instruction is parallel, not supplementary, to that offered in the regular classroom.

2. **Center Approach:** Non-English speaking students are scheduled for a large portion of the day in a bilingual center offering intensive English language

development and, in some cases, instruction in the primary language. Students return to the regular classroom only for those subjects not requiring significant English language interaction.

3. **In-Classroom:** Eligible students who have attained some English language proficiency are provided, in the regular classroom, with ESL instruction by a specialized instructor and, in some cases, with academic instruction in the primary language.

4. **Pull-Out:** Takes students from the regular classroom to provide ESL and, in some cases, academic instruction in the primary language. Instruction is delivered either in small groups or on an individual basis.

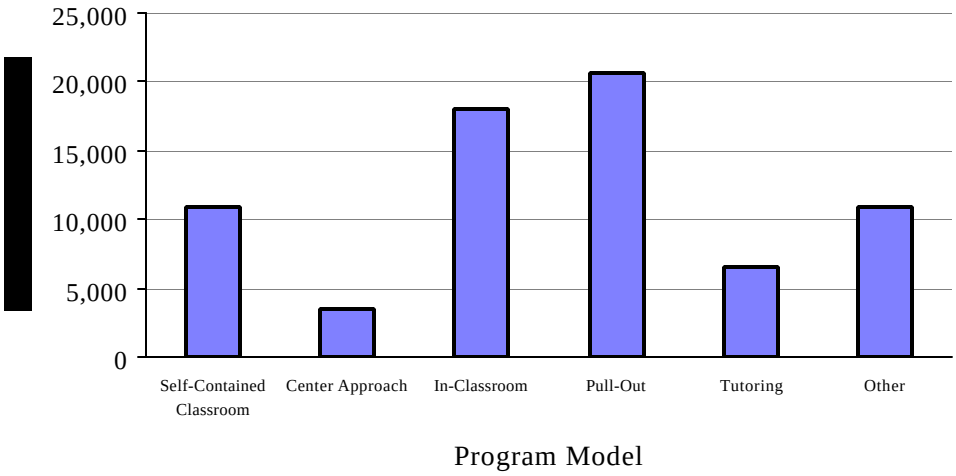
5. **Tutoring** Provides students with a bilingual tutor who assists individual or small groups in completing class assignments or provides limited assistance in ESL.

Table 2-4 and Figure 2-6 report the number of students served by program model. Because students may be served in more than one model, the totals reported exceeds the unduplicated total number served.

Table 2-4: Enrollment by Type of Program Model (School Year 1999–00)

Program Model	Number of Students	Percent of Total
Self-Contained Classroom	10,935	15.5%
Center Approach	3,528	5.0%
In-Classroom	18,041	25.6%
Pull-Out	20,550	29.2%
Tutoring	6,488	9.2%
Other	10,810	15.4%

Figure 2-6: Enrollment by Type of Program Model (School Year 1999–00)



Effectiveness

Research has been conducted to determine the effectiveness of different approaches for educating LEP students. In general, studies have found that the more instruction that is provided in the student's primary language, the better the overall academic performance of the student over a long-term period.[22] It is believed that developing proficiency in one language promotes the development of proficiency in a second language. Our analysis of student-level data from 46 districts was consistent with this conclusion. We found that the average length of time LEP students had spent in the program was less when they were receiving more intensive instruction in their primary language along with instruction in English.[23] LEP students who received more intensive instruction in their primary language outside their regular classroom averaged less time in the program, while students receiving somewhat limited assistance only in the context of their regular classroom averaged the longest amount of time in the program. These findings would indicate that more academic instruction needs to be given in the student's primary language rather than simply relying only on English-language instruction. However, the shortage of trained staff to provide instruction in many primary languages limits this possibility.

Due to a number of data limitations, these results should be viewed with caution until more research can be conducted.[24] The data OSPI receives from districts related to the instructional focus and program model categories are not verified for accuracy, so the results noted above should be considered estimates of how instruction is provided statewide. Even if these data were verified, the categories are not exhaustive, not mutually exclusive, and are broadly defined and therefore subject to interpretation when districts prepare their reports. We found some confusion among districts regarding how to characterize their instructional focus and programs when we asked districts about their data. In addition, some districts move LEP students from one type of program to another over time as the students improve their English language skills, but districts have not been asked to provide this type of data. Research has been hampered in other parts of the country by similar problems related to the lack or inaccuracy of data. In addition, the quality of a program will influence its effectiveness, so poorly implemented programs will cancel out the effects of successful programs in evaluation studies. Some researchers say it would be better to observe the components of programs,

[22] The effects of different instructional approaches may not be seen in the short-term since language acquisition in an academic context is a long-term process. See *Reading and Second Language Learners—Research Report*, OSPI, April 1999, and *School Effectiveness for Language Minority Students*, Thomas, W. and Collier, V., National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, December 1997.

[23] Students receiving a significant amount of instruction in their primary language as well as instruction in English averaged 2.3 years in the program; students who were provided ESL instruction in a regular classroom averaged 3.8 years in the program. Nearly all districts involved in the program in Washington provide the same kind of approach from year to year, so analyses of length of stay over time does not appear to be affected by changes in educational approaches.

[24] A number of major studies are scheduled to be released in 2001.

principally in the classroom, rather than simply comparing programs based on imprecise labels.[25] OSPI plans to take steps to improve the definitions used in the district reports and gather the types of information that can be used to help evaluate the program.

Section 5 and Appendix E provide more information about the effectiveness of programs for LEP students. Section 6 provides information about additional research that needs to be conducted.

[25] *Improving Schools For Language Minority Students,* August, D., & Hakuta, K. (Eds.), National Academy Press, 1997.

STUDENTS SERVED
SECTION 3

The number and percentage of LEP students in Washington continues to grow, but at a slower rate than last year. LEP students are not evenly distributed across the state. Some districts serve either a large number or a high percentage of LEP students, while other districts serve few or no LEP students. Moreover, some districts have experienced a high rate of growth in their LEP student population, while other districts are serving fewer LEP students. Half of the LEP students are found in Grades K–3. Many are served by other state or federal programs as well.

TOTAL LEP STUDENT ENROLLMENT

A total of 66,281 students were served by the program in school year 1999–00. This total represents a 6.7 percent increase from the previous year total but a slower rate of growth than in school year 1998-99 (9.1%). The average monthly enrollment in the program was 55,651 in school year 1999–00. This number is used for state funding purposes. The program serves slightly more males (52.8 percent) than females (47.2 percent). This proportion of males to females has remained about the same for the past 15 years.

The percentage of LEP students in the state has slowly risen over time (see Table 3-1 and Figure 3-2). In school year 1999–00, 6.7 percent of the state's students were in the program, up from 6.3 percent in the previous year. The increase in the level of LEP students in the state is influenced by several factors. First, the non-English speaking student population is growing faster than the English-speaking student population because of higher immigration and birth rates.[26] In addition, when a district develops an approved program, its LEP students would be added to the number of students in the program. More districts had approved program in school year 1999-00 than in any year in the past decade. Finally, the increase is influenced by a higher rate of students entering the program compared to the rate of students exiting the program. In school year 1999–00, 20,545 students entered the program and 16,474 left the program, a net difference of 4,171. (See Section 5 for more information on those leaving the program and factors affecting their length of stay in the program.)

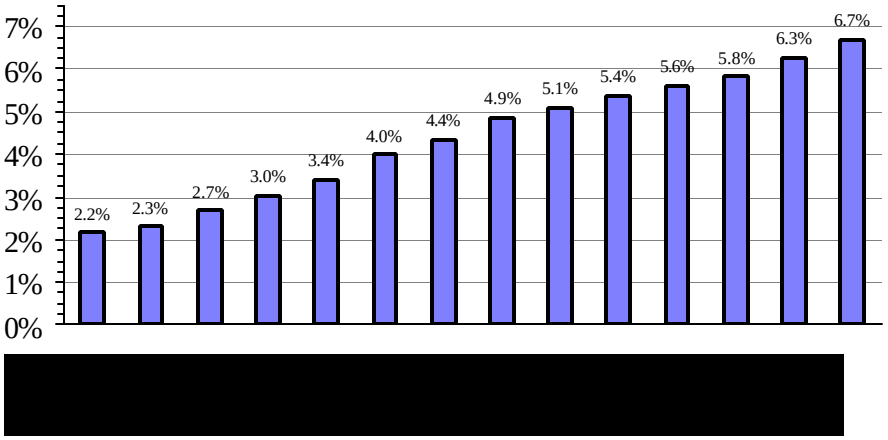
[26] According to the U.S. Census Bureau, both the Asian and Hispanic populations have a higher percentage of the total Washington population in 1999 than in 1990. It is hard to determine the cause of the increase—birth rates, refugee flows from abroad and other states, the strength of the economy in different parts of the country, and the relative quality of ESL programs can all affect the growth of the non-English speaking population.

Table 3-1: Growth of LEP Student Enrollment

Year	Total Enrollment[1]	Total LEP[1]	Percent LEP
1986–87	756,340	16,352	2.2%
1987–88	770,538	17,800	2.3%
1988–89	785,854	21,062	2.7%
1989–90	805,913	24,279	3.0%
1990–91	833,906	28,473	3.4%
1991–92	862,423	34,338	4.0%
1992–93	889,680	38,735	4.4%
1993–94	908,017	44,266	4.9%
1994–95	928,669	47,214	5.1%
1995–96	945,283	50,737	5.4%
1996–97	964,642	54,124	5.6%
1997–98	977,818	56,939	5.8%
1998–99	990,884	62,132	6.3%
1999–00	992,088	66,281	6.7%

[1] Average headcount based on the P-223.

Figure 3-1: Percentage of LEP Students Statewide Has Gradually Increased[1]



[1] Percentage is based on the total number of LEP students served and the total number of students in the state (i.e., headcounts).

UNEVEN DISTRIBUTION OF LEP STUDENTS

LEP students are not evenly distributed across the state. A total of 185 districts had students in the program in school year 1999–00, which is 63 percent of the state's districts. The percentage has remained about the same the past few years. These 185 districts enroll over 95 percent of the state's total student population.

- In the 185 districts, 19 had LEP students representing at least 25 percent of their total average enrollment, while 50 districts had LEP students representing less than one percent of their total average enrollment. Districts that had students in the program had an average of 6.1 percent LEP students.

- In terms of the number of LEP students served, 20 of the 185 districts had more than 1,000 LEP students. These 20 districts had 62 percent of all LEP students served. On the other hand, 18 districts had programs serving less than 10 LEP students.

- Some districts experienced tremendous growth in the number of LEP students, while others had fewer LEP students than in previous years. Of the districts that had at least 1,000 LEP students in school year 1999–00, both Everett and Mukilteo had 45 percent more LEP students than in the previous year; Seattle, Tacoma, and Sunnyside had fewer LEP students than in the previous year.

The following figures and tables show the number of districts with a bilingual program as well as the districts with the highest percentage and number of LEP students served. Appendix D provides more information on the percentage and number of students served.

Figure 3-2: Number of Districts with a Program for LEP Students

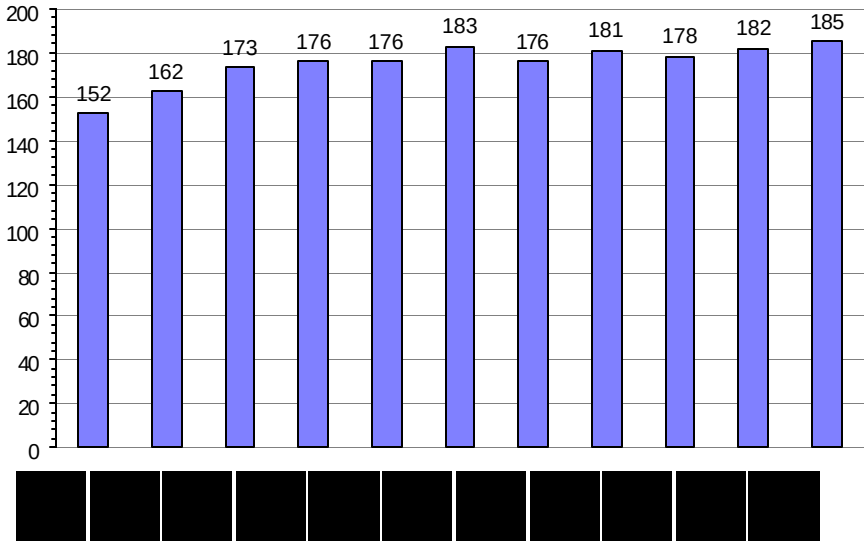


Table 3-2: Districts With At Least 25 Percent LEP Students (School Year 1999–00)

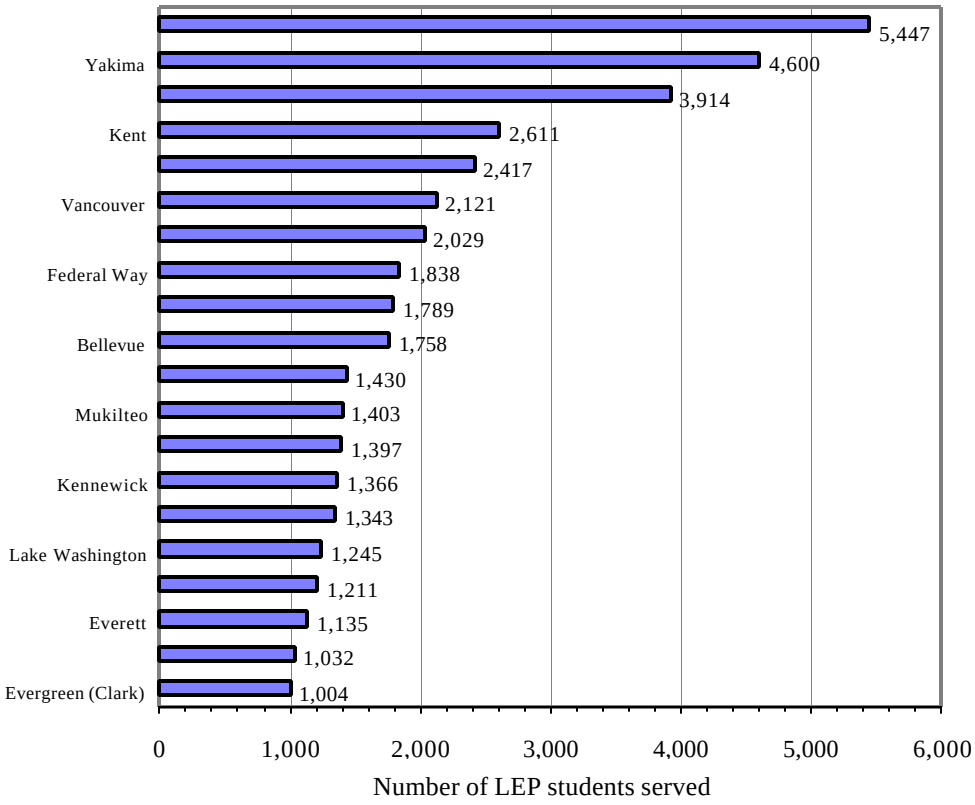
District	Average LEP Enrollment[1]	Total Students[1]	Percent LEP Students
1. Palisades	35	43	82.3%
2. Orondo	118	169	69.7%
3. Toppenish	1,997	3,269	61.1%
4. Wahluke	749	1,323	56.6%
5. Roosevelt	11	20	54.8%
6. Bridgeport	299	595	50.2%
7. Brewster	394	957	41.1%
8. Pasco	3,107	7,943	39.1%
9. Prescott	99	258	38.3%
10. Royal	436	1,216	35.8%
11. Manson	234	653	35.8%
12. Othello	880	2,842	31.0%
13. Warden	264	869	30.3%
14. Yakima	3,983	13,162	30.3%
15. Wapato	918	3,099	29.6%
16. North Franklin	499	1,795	27.8%
17. Cape Flattery	149	551	27.1%
18. Mabton	220	858	25.7%
19. Sunnyside	1,235	4,898	25.2%
	15,627	44,520	31.1%

[1] Monthly average

Table 3-3: Districts With At Least 1,000 LEP Students (School Year 1999-2000)

District	Total LEP Students (School Year)		Percent Increase in LEP Students in Past Year
	1999-2000	1998-1999	
1. Seattle	5,447	5,584	-2.5%
2. Yakima	4,600	4,491	2.4%
3. Pasco	3,914	3,537	10.7%
4. Kent	2,611	2,354	10.9%
5. Toppenish	2,417	2,313	4.5%
6. Vancouver	2,121	1,921	10.4%
7. Tacoma	2,029	2,234	-9.2%
8. Federal Way	1,838	1,610	14.2%
9. Highline	1,789	1,735	3.1%
10. Bellevue	1,758	1,687	4.2%
11. Edmonds	1,430	1,362	5.0%
12. Mukilteo	1,403	963	45.7%
13. Mount Vernon	1,397	1,092	27.9%
14. Kennewick	1,366	1,357	0.7%
15. Wenatchee	1,343	1,326	1.3%
16. Lake Washington	1,245	1,225	1.6%
17. Sunnyside	1,211	1,311	-7.6%
18. Everett	1,135	782	45.1%
19. Wapato	1,032	1,000	3.2%
20. Evergreen (Clark)	1,004	861	16.6%
Total	41,090	38,745	6.1%

Figure 3-3: Districts Serving At Least 1,000 LEP Students (School Year 1999–00)



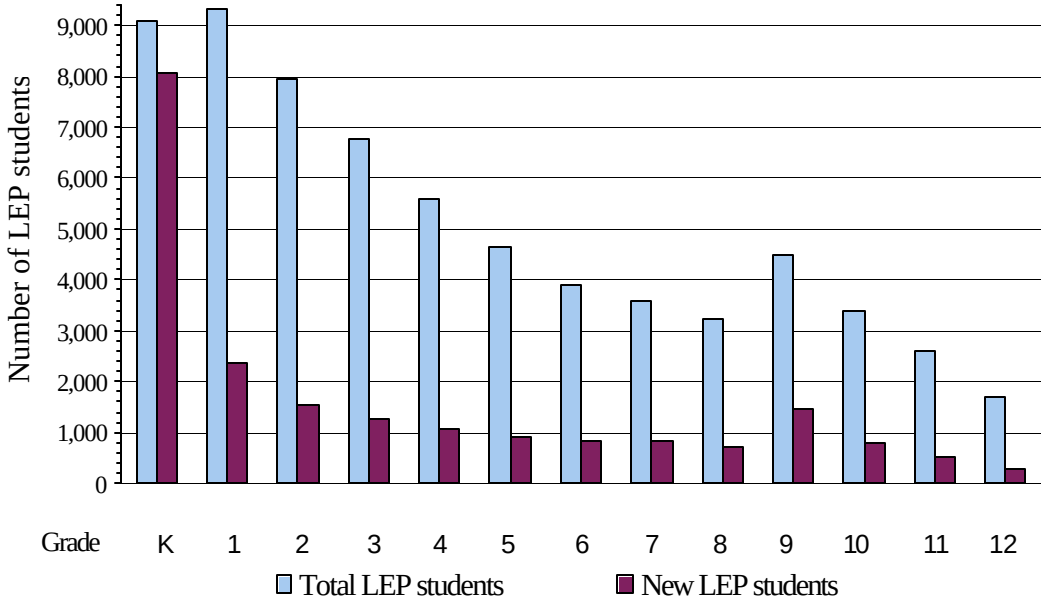
GRADES OF STUDENTS SERVED

Most students served by the program are in the early grades. LEP students in grades K–3 accounted for 50 percent of the LEP students served in school year 1999–00. The percentage of LEP students gradually declines in the higher grades. New LEP students—those served for the first time by the district—represented 31 percent of the total LEP student enrollment. As expected, LEP students in kindergarten comprise most of the new students. Grade 9 shows an increase in the number of new and total LEP students compared to the earlier grades. Table 3-4 and Figure 3-4 show for each grade level the number of total and new LEP students served.

Table 3-4: Total and New LEP Enrollment by Grade Level (School Year 1999–00)

Grade	Total LEP students	Percent of total LEP students	New LEP students	Percent of new LEP students	New LEP students percentage of total LEP students
K	9,103	13.7%	8,056	39.2%	88.5%
1	9,319	14.1%	2,357	11.5%	25.3%
2	7,956	12.0%	1,518	7.4%	19.1%
3	6,765	10.2%	1,242	6.0%	18.4%
4	5,578	8.4%	1,079	5.3%	19.3%
5	4,659	7.0%	900	4.4%	19.3%
6	3,907	5.9%	828	4.0%	21.2%
7	3,582	5.4%	825	4.0%	23.0%
8	3,238	4.9%	708	3.4%	21.9%
9	4,481	6.8%	1,463	7.1%	32.6%
10	3,391	5.1%	783	3.8%	23.1%
11	2,587	3.9%	504	2.5%	19.5%
12	1,706	2.6%	275	1.3%	16.1%
Ungraded	9	0.0%	7	0.0%	77.8%
Total	66,281	100.0%	20,545	100.0%	31.0%

Figure 3-4: Total and New LEP Student Enrollment by Grade Level (School Year 1999–00)



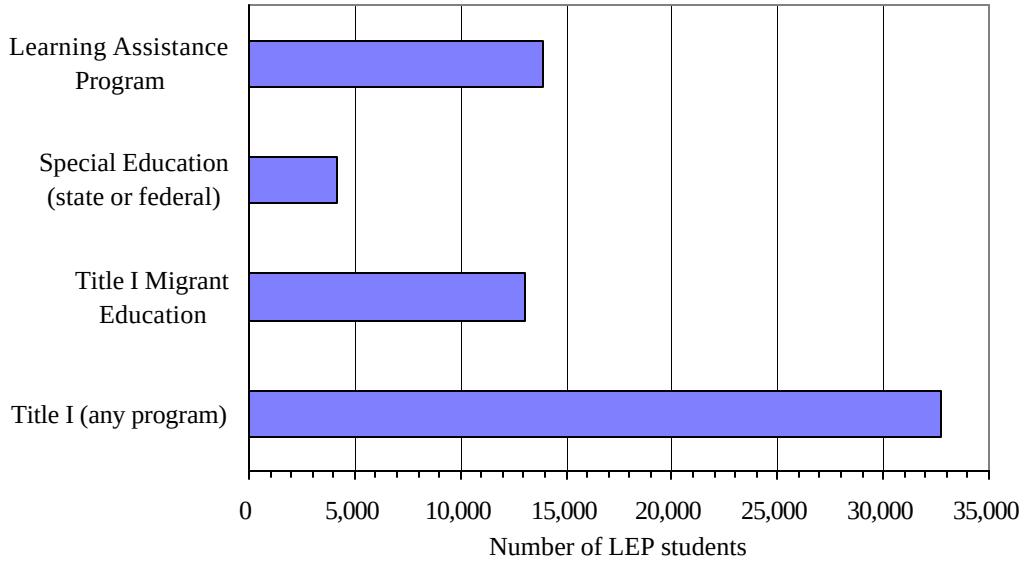
STUDENTS SERVED BY OTHER PROGRAMS

Some students with limited English proficiency also receive other services. Table 3-5 and Figure 3-5 provide more information on LEP students receiving services from other federal and state programs. The high number of students served by Title I reflects the fact than many LEP students are enrolled in schools that have "schoolwide" Title I programs, which apply to all students in the school. It also reflects the fact that LEP students tend to come from low-income families (see Section 7 for more information on this issue).

Table 3-5: Number and Percentage of LEP Students Receiving Support by Other Programs (School Year 1999–00)

Other programs supporting LEP students	Number of LEP students served by other program	Percent of all LEP students
Title I	32,683	49.3%
Title I Migrant Education	13,058	19.7%
Special Education (state or federal)	4,151	6.3%
Learning Assistance Program	13,924	21.0%

Figure 3-5: Number of LEP Students Receiving Support by Other Programs (School Year 1999–00)



LANGUAGES SPOKEN
SECTION 4

A total of 159 languages were represented in the program, 10 fewer than in the previous year. However, 85 percent of the students spoke either Spanish or one of six other languages. Some districts have many different languages spoken among their LEP students, while many other districts serve only LEP students whose primary language is Spanish. The number of students speaking some languages has grown dramatically, while the number speaking other languages has declined.

NUMBER OF STUDENTS SPEAKING VARIOUS LANGUAGES

A total of 159 primary, non-English languages were represented among the students served by the program in school year 1999–00.[27] For the last 13 years, students speaking Spanish accounted for more LEP students than students speaking all the other languages combined. In school year 1999-00, Spanish was the primary language spoken by 61 percent of all LEP students. While the percentage of Spanish speaking students in Washington has gradually increased at a steady pace, the percentage is still less than the national average—about 75 percent of LEP students speak Spanish nationwide.

Besides Spanish, six other languages were spoken by at least 1,000 students in Washington: Russian, Vietnamese, Ukrainian, Korean, Cambodian, and Tagalog. About 24 percent of all Washington LEP students spoke one of these six languages. In contrast, over half of the 159 languages were spoken by less than 10 students statewide.

Overall, the rate of increase in the number of students speaking languages other than Spanish has slowed. Nevertheless, the number of students speaking some languages has risen rapidly. For example, in one year the number of LEP students speaking Somali increased about 36 percent and the number speaking Bosnian increased 140 percent. On the other hand, the number speaking the major southeast Asian languages (Vietnamese, Cambodian, and Lao) all had large declines. These fluctuations are closely related to the timing of when refugees arrived in the United States.

The following tables and figures provide more information on the number of students speaking the various languages represented in the program. Appendix B lists the number of students speaking the different languages in the program.

[27] Some districts could not identify the names of the languages spoken by their LEP students, so there may be more than 159 languages spoken by LEP students statewide.

Table 4-1: Frequency of Languages Spoken by LEP Students Served

LEP Students Served	Number of Language Groups
1,000 or more	7
100–999	25
10–99	47
1–9	80
Total	*159*

Table 4-2: Steady Growth of Spanish-Speaking LEP Students Served

School Year	Total LEP Students	Percent Spanish
1984–85	13,939	40.3
1985–86	15,024	44.0
1986–87	16,352	45.1
1987–88	17,800	52.0
1988–89	21,062	54.2
1989–90	24,279	54.9
1990–91	28,473	54.5
1991–92	34,338	54.4
1992–93	38,735	55.5
1993–94	44,266	55.5
1994–95	47,214	56.8
1995–96	50,737	58.8
1996–97	54,124	59.8
1997–98	56,939	59.9
1998–99	62,132	60.1
1999–00	66,281	61.3

Figure 4-1: Steady Growth of Spanish-Speaking LEP Students

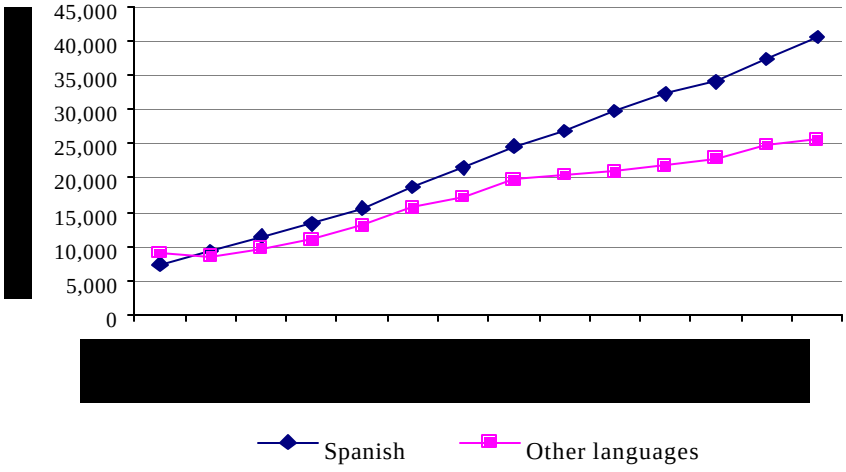


Table 4-3: Change in Enrollment, by Major Language Group

	School Year		Change since
Language	**1999–00**	**1998–99**	**1998–99**
Spanish	40,662	37,349	8.9%
Russian	5,480	5,049	8.5%
Vietnamese	3,201	2,598	-8.0%
Ukrainian	2,895	3,478	11.4%
Korean	1,804	1,610	12.0%
Cambodian	1,444	1,697	-14.9%
Tagalog	1,047	657	24.9%
Chinese-Cantonese	913	838	10.9%
Somali	892	823	35.8%
Punjabi	626	635	-1.4%
Chinese-Mandarin	436	358	-11.7%
Arabic	428	178	19.6%
Bosnian	427	423	139.9%
Japanese	413	494	-2.4%
Lao	403	531	-24.1%

Figure 4-2: One-Year Change in Enrollment, by Major Language Group

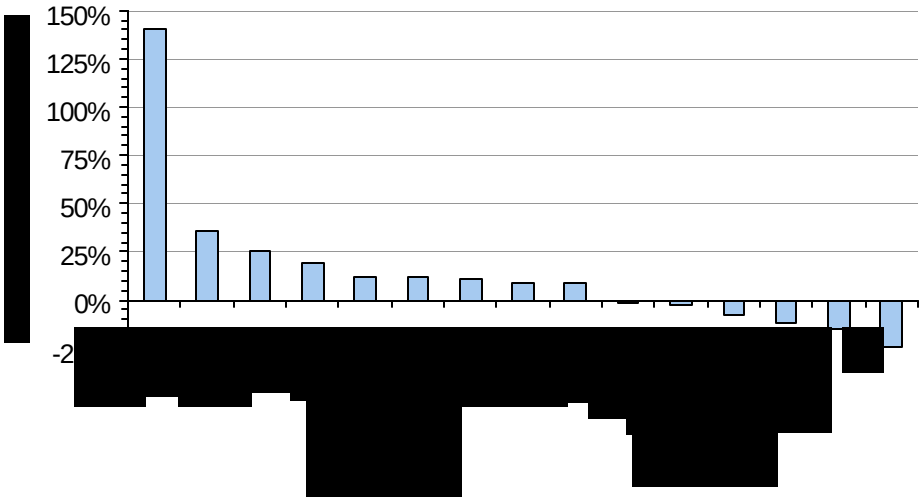


Table 4-4: Five-Year Change in Enrollment, by Major Language Group

						Pct. Change
Language	**1995–96**	**1996–97**	**1997–98**	**1998–99**	**1999–00**	**1996–2000**
Spanish	29,830	32,367	34,099	37,349	40,662	36.3%
Ukrainian	1,546	1,645	1,961	2,598	2,895	87.3%
Russian	3,701	3,907	4,089	5,049	5,480	48.1%
Tagalog	837	881	910	838	1,047	25.1%
Korean	1,497	1,563	1,514	1,610	1,804	20.5%
Vietnamese	3,983	3,792	3,585	3,478	3,201	-19.6%
Cambodian	1,791	1,724	1,685	1,697	1,444	-19.4%
All languages	*50,737*	*54,124*	*56,939*	*62,132*	*66,281*	*30.6%*

Figure 4-4: Some Languages Increase While Others Decline

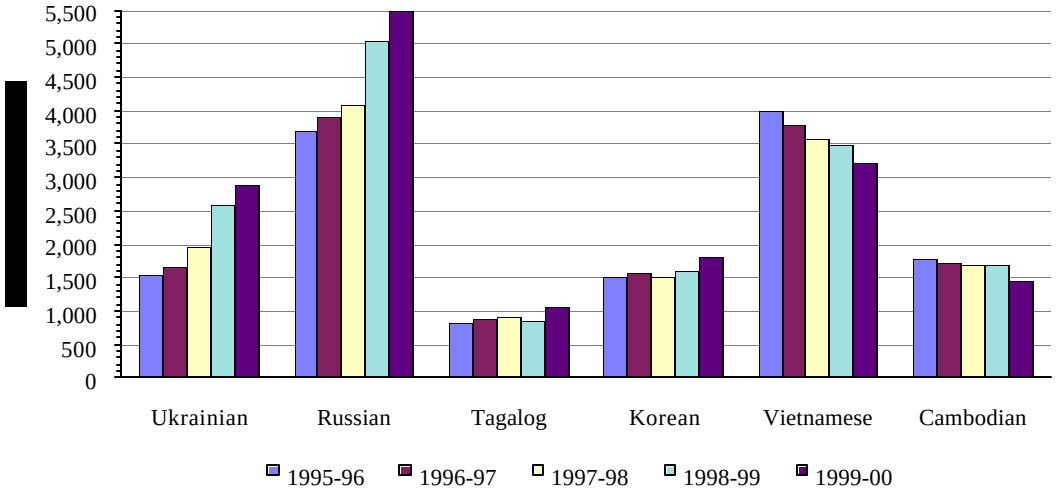
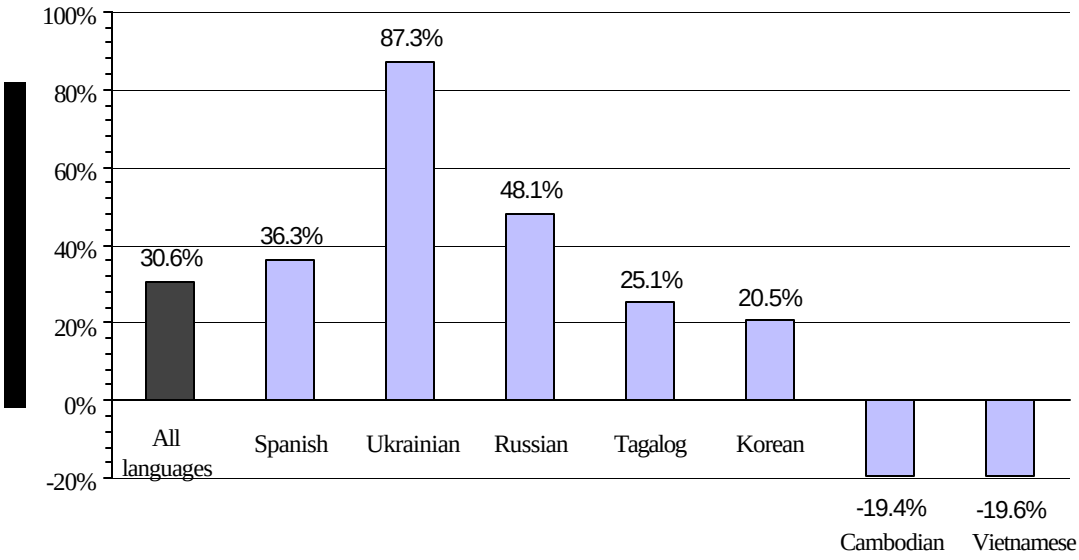


Figure 4-5: Five-Year Growth of LEP Students, Selected Languages



WIDE DISPARITY IN THE NUMBER OF LANGUAGES

Some districts provide instruction to LEP students speaking many different languages. In school year 1999-00, 19 districts served students that spoke more than 20 languages (see Table 4-5). In contrast, some districts serve many students who speak the same language—56 districts had at least 20 LEP students and more than 95 percent of their LEP students speaking Spanish (see Table 4-6). Figure 4-6 shows how the number of languages served varied considerably in school year 1999–00. Appendix D provides more information on the number of languages spoken in the districts.

Table 4-5: Districts Serving More Than 20 Languages (School Year 1999–00)

District	Number of Languages	Total LEP Enrollment	LEP Enrollment to Languages Ratio
1. Kent	72	2,611	36.3
2. Seattle	59	5,447	92.3
3. Edmonds	55	1,430	26.0
4. Bellevue	50	1,758	35.2
5. Highline	49	1,789	36.5
6. Lake Washington	47	1,245	26.5
7. Renton	47	841	17.9
8. Shoreline	45	561	12.5
9. Federal Way	44	1,838	41.8
10. Vancouver	38	2,121	55.8
11. Tukwila	36	688	19.1
12. Northshore	36	443	12.3
13. Mukilteo	35	1,403	40.1
14. Evergreen (Clark)	33	1,004	30.4
15. Spokane	33	899	27.2
16. Tacoma	31	2,029	65.5
17. Everett	31	1,135	36.6
18. Clover Park	25	691	27.6
19. Bellingham	22	425	19.3

Table 4-6: Districts With at Least 95 Percent LEP Students Speaking Spanish[1] (School Year 1999–00)

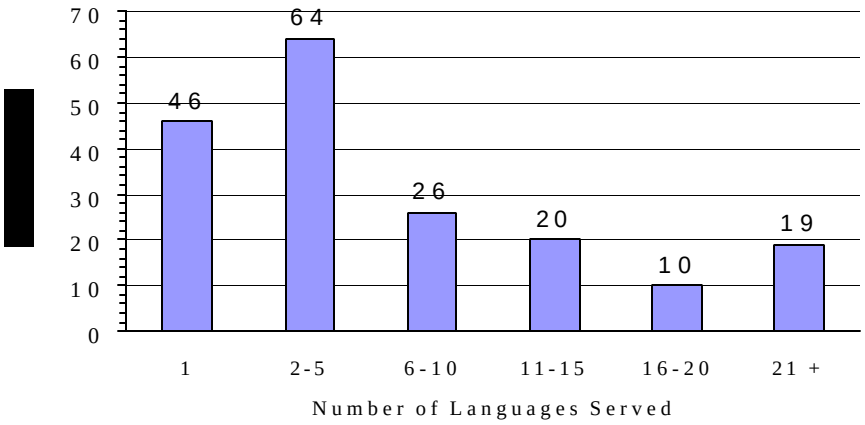
District	Total LEP Students	Total Spanish-Speaking LEP Students	Percent Spanish
1. Yakima	4,600	4,556	99.0%
2. Pasco	3,914	3,779	96.6%
3. Wenatchee	1,343	1,308	97.4%
4. Sunnyside	1,211	1,203	99.3%
5. Wapato	1,032	1,014	98.3%
6. Othello	978	973	99.5%
7. Wahluke	885	884	99.9%
8. Prosser	636	633	99.5%
9. Quincy	628	624	99.4%
10. Walla Walla	630	607	96.3%
11. Burlington-Edison	549	540	98.3%
12. Royal	536	536	100.0%
13. Grandview	518	517	99.8%
14. North Franklin	504	496	98.1%
15. Brewster	469	469	100.0%
16. Bridgeport	344	344	100.0%
17. Granger	340	340	100.0%
18. Lake Chelan	323	317	98.1%
19. Warden	309	308	99.7%
20. Mabton	268	268	100.0%
21. Manson	261	261	100.0%
22. Highland	229	227	99.1%
23. White Salmon	223	222	99.6%
24. Okanogan	184	184	100.0%
25. East Valley (Yakima)	152	152	100.0%
26. Orondo	147	147	100.0%

Continued on next page

District	Total LEP Students	Total Spanish-Speaking LEP Students	Percent Spanish
27. Kiona-Benton	139	137	98.6%
28. Oroville	120	120	100.0%
29. Selah	121	120	99.2%
30. Shelton	122	118	96.7%
31. Mount Adams	118	118	100.0%
32. Prescott	118	118	100.0%
33. Cashmere	115	115	100.0%
34. Naches Valley	97	95	97.9%
35. Zillah	94	94	100.0%
36. Sedro Woolley	97	93	95.9%
37. Tonasket	90	90	100.0%
38. Union Gap	88	88	100.0%
39. West Valley (Yakima)	89	85	95.5%
40. Omak	79	77	97.5%
41. Chehalis	76	75	98.7%
42. Entiat	52	52	100.0%
43. Dayton	45	45	100.0%
44. Kittitas	45	45	100.0%
45. Palisades	45	45	100.0%
46. LaConner	43	43	100.0%
47. Touchet	42	42	100.0%
48. Finley	41	41	100.0%
49. Pateros	39	39	100.0%
50. Enumclaw	37	37	100.0%
51. Quinault Lake	37	37	100.0%
52. Woodland	36	36	100.0%
53. Conway	35	34	97.1%
54. Waterville	34	34	100.0%
55. Sequim	31	31	100.0%
56. Lind	28	28	100.0%
Total	**23,366**	**23,041**	**98.6%**

[1] Only districts serving at least 20 LEP students are listed. A total of 13 districts serving fewer than 20 LEP students have only Spanish-speaking students in the program.

Figure 4-6: Number of Languages Served Among Districts



LENGTH OF STAY AND ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE
SECTION 5

The state program is intended to provide temporary support services for up to three years until LEP students can develop adequate English language skills. Concerns have been raised about students staying in the program longer than three years. While most students have been in the program no more than two years, about 28 percent had been in the program for more than three years, and about 10 percent had been in the program from more than five years.

The length of stay in the program depends not only on a student's English language ability but also on how students perform on academic tests. LEP students tend to have lower scores on achievement tests. Many factors affect how students perform on tests, so these factors affect their length of stay in the program as well. Some students tend to stay in the program longer, such as those from low-income families, those with little previous education and low English language proficiency when entering the program, and those served by special education and migrant programs. Students speaking certain languages tend to stay in the program longer. Program-related factors may affect a student's length of stay as well, such as the quality or type of program administered, the extent to which the primary language is used in instruction, and the relative ease with which students enter and exit the program.

BACKGROUND

The purpose of the program is to provide temporary services for up to three years until LEP students can develop adequate English language skills. Thus, instruction is provided in a "transitional" program. As discussed in Section 2, students are eligible to enter the program if they score below a certain level on an oral language proficiency test. Each year districts reassess their LEP students to determine if they can continue in the program. Eligibility ends when a student scores above the 35th percentile in the reading and language arts portions of an approved norm-referenced written test. Students cannot stay in the program more than three years unless their English language skills remain below the 35th percentile. Districts must have empirical evidence to keep a student in the program for more than three years.

Concerns have been raised about the length of time students spend in the program. Each LEP student generates extra funding for the district, and the number of students in the program continues to grow at a faster pace than the overall student population. The growth in the program can be a result of many factors, as discussed in Section 3. However, many students stay in the program for more than the intended three years, which contributes to the growing number of students served.

OSPI examined various issues related to the length of stay of students served by bilingual and ESL programs. Specifically, we examined the amount of time that students spend in the program, the impact that programs for LEP students have on their academic achievement and the length of stay in these types of programs, and factors that influence the length of stay. This section contains information related to these issues based on analyses of district and student-level data and published research.

LEP STUDENTS LEAVING AND REMAINING IN THE PROGRAM

LEP students leave the program in several ways. They can be transitioned out of the program by meeting the exit performance criteria. A student meeting the exit criteria is expected to perform adequately in a regular, all-English classroom. A student can also leave the program by either graduating or dropping out of school. Finally, some students leave for other reasons.

Approximately 25 percent of the LEP students served during school year 1999–00 left the program. Ten percent (6,619) were either transitioned out of or graduated from the program. (Appendix C lists this information by each district.) Another 15 percent (9,855) left for other reasons. Tables 5-1 and 5-2 provide more information about the number of LEP students leaving the program.

Table 5-1: Status of Students Served in the Last Five Years

	1995–96	1996–97	1997–98	1998–99	1999–00	Percent of Total
Exited program	*12,045*	*13,379*	*13,824*	*13,898*	*16,474*	*24.9%*
Graduated	1,173	1,194	1,080	1,117	1,221	1.8%
Transitioned	3,919	4,102	5,007	5,095	5,398	8.1%
Dropped out	1,043	1,018	1,297	1,079	1,365	2.1%
Unknown/other reasons	5,910	7,065	6,440	6,607	8,490	12.8%
Continuing in program	*38,682*	*40,745*	*43,115*	*48,234*	*49,807*	*75.1%*
Promoted	37,683	39,745	41,678	46,674	47,959	72.4%
Retained	1,009	1,000	1,437	1,560	1,848	2.8%
Total LEP students served	*50,737*	*54,124*	*56,939*	*62,132*	*66,281*	*100.0%*

Table 5-2: Number and Percent of Students Transitioned or Graduated from the Program by Time in Program (School Year 1999–00)

Time in Program	Number Served	Number of LEP Students Transitioned or Graduated[1]	Percent of Total Number Served (66,281)	Percent of Number Served, by Time in Program
Less than 1 year	22,359	1,199	1.8%	5.4%
1–2 years	15,805	1,638	2.5%	10.4%
2–3 years	9,640	1,369	2.1%	14.2%
3–4 years	6,904	955	1.4%	13.8%
4–5 years	4,646	643	1.0%	13.8%
More than 5 years	6,927	815	1.2%	11.8%
Total	66,281	6,619	10.0%	10.0%

[1] Does not include others who exited the program through other means.

Students cannot stay in the program for more than three years unless their English language skills remain below the 35th percentile on an approved written test. In school year 1999–00, the majority (58%) had been in the program two years or less. However, about 28 percent of the LEP students had been in the program for more than three years (see Appendix C for district-level information); this percentage has increased slightly over the past four years.

Table 5-3 and Figure 5-1 show the proportions served by length of time in the program in school year 1999–00. Table 5-4 and Figure 5-2 provide information on the length of stay over the past four years.

Table 5-3: Number and Percent of Students Served in the Program by Time in Program (School Year 1999–00)

Time in Program	Number Served	Percent in Program
Less than 1 year	22,359	33.7%
1–2 years	15,805	23.8%
2–3 years	9,640	14.5%
3–4 years	6,904	10.4%
4–5 years	4,646	7.0%
More than 5 years	6,927	10.5%
Total	66,281	100.0%

Figure 5-1: Number of LEP Students Served in the Program by Time in Program (School Year 1999–00)

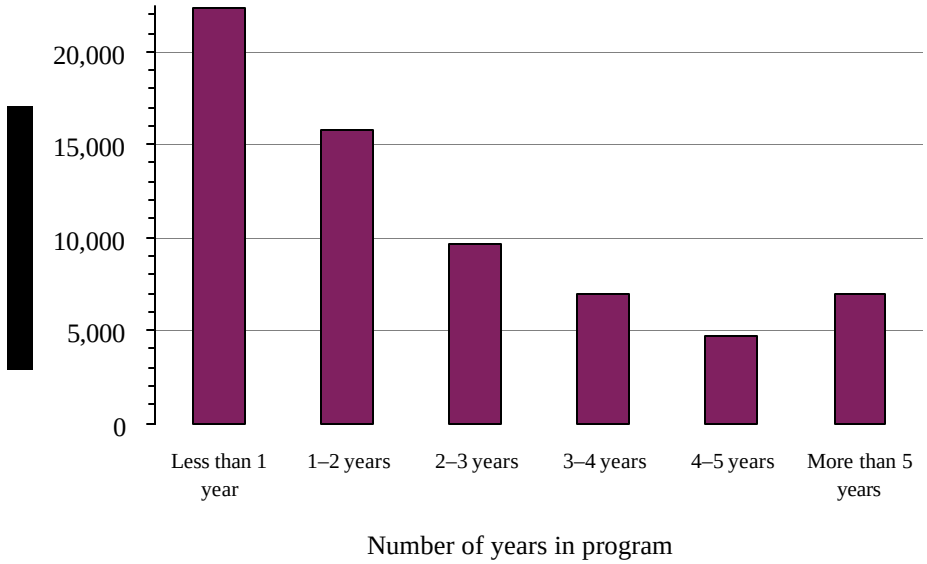
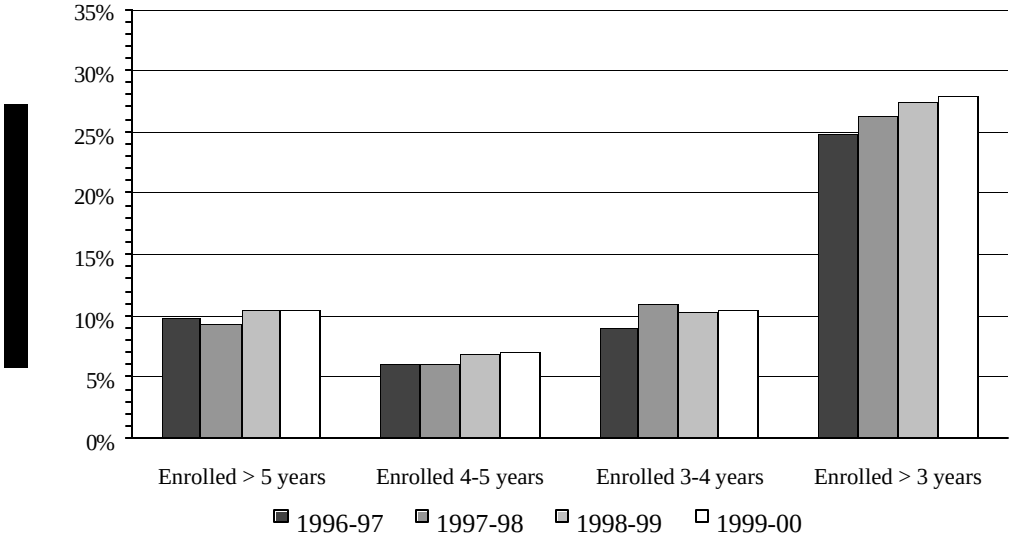


Table 5-4: Trend in the Number of Students Served in the Program

Time in Program	1996–97	1997–98	1998–99	1999–00
< 1 year	18,943	19,228	21,862	22,359
1–2 years	13,531	13,589	13,869	15,805
2–3 years	9,742	9,190	9,331	9,640
3–4 years	4,871	6,240	6,386	6,904
4–5 years	3,247	3,417	4,246	4,646
> 5 years	5,275	5,275	6,438	6,927
Total	54,124	56,939	62,132	66,281

Figure 5-2: Trend in the Percentage of Students Served More Than Three Years



	1996–97	1997–98	1998–99	1999–00
Enrolled more than 3 years	24.7%	26.2%	27.5%	27.9%
Enrolled 3-4 years	9.0%	11.0%	10.3%	10.4%
Enrolled 4-5 years	6.0%	6.0%	6.8%	7.0%
Enrolled > 5 years	9.7%	9.3%	10.4%	10.5%

TEST SCORE TRENDS

The length of stay in the state program depends not only on a student's English language ability but also on performance on academic tests. Research has found that children do not learn a second language effortlessly and that they may require many years to reach grade-level academic ability in the new language. Many LEP students may be able to speak and understand English, but they may have problems reading and writing English proficiently.

Thus, students who are not proficient in using the English language have a higher risk of academic failure. Often they do not profit fully from instruction in English, and many LEP students have low levels of academic performance in English, have higher rates of grade retention, and have much higher dropout rates than their English-fluent peers. An analysis of student performance in Washington

shows a clear relationship between the level of LEP students in a district and district averages on various state assessments. The results of the Grade 4 and 7 WASL show that when the level of LEP students in a district is greater than 15 percent, the percentage of students meeting the standard in both mathematics and reading declines rapidly (see Figures 5-3 and 5-4). The same pattern exists in other grades for other tests (see Table 5-5).

Figure 5-3: Districts With Higher Levels of LEP Students Have Lower Levels of Students Meeting Math Standards (School Year 1999–00)

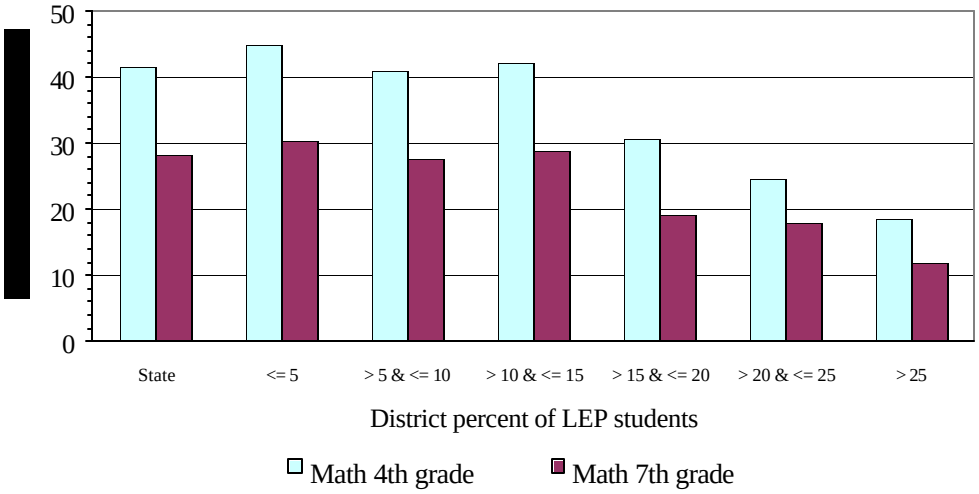


Figure 5-4: Districts With Higher Levels of LEP Students Have Lower Levels of Students Meeting Reading Standards (School Year 1999–00)

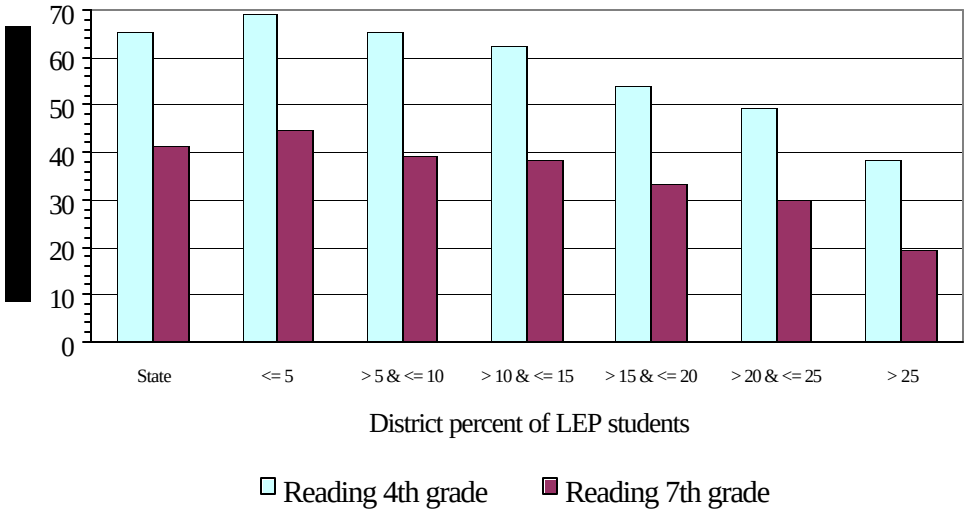


Table 5-5: Test Scores Decline as District LEP Percentage Increases[28] (School Year 1999–00)

Percent Meeting WASL Standard	State Average	Percentage of District LEP Students					
		≤ 5	>5 & ≤10	>10 & ≤15	>15 & ≤20	>20 & ≤25	>25
Grade 4 math	41.6	44.7	40.9	42.0	30.5	24.6	18.4
Grade 7 math	28.2	30.3	27.6	28.9	19.1	18.0	11.9
Grade 4 reading	65.4	69.2	65.5	62.3	53.9	49.3	38.3
Grade 7 reading	41.5	44.9	39.1	38.3	33.4	29.9	19.5
3-yr WASL Avg.							
Grade 4 math	36.8	39.7	35.4	36.2	27.1	20.5	14.8
Grade 7 math	24.2	26.0	23.4	24.4	17.0	13.9	9.4
Grade 4 reading	60.2	63.9	59.0	56.1	47.1	43.2	33.3
Grade 7 reading	40.2	43.4	38.0	36.6	33.2	26.5	19.4
ITBS Percentile							
Grade 3 math	63	63.6	60.3	65.6	51.1	39.9	38.0
Grade 6 math	56	57.9	54.5	58.0	46.2	40.5	37.6
Grade 3 reading	56	57.9	53.6	57.5	41.3	37.6	31.2
Grade 6 reading	54	56.4	51.0	55.0	40.4	38.5	29.2
Pct. Low-Income	31.1%	25.3%	34.1%	42.2%	48.8%	58.5%	65.7%

RELATIONSHIP WITH FAMILY INCOME

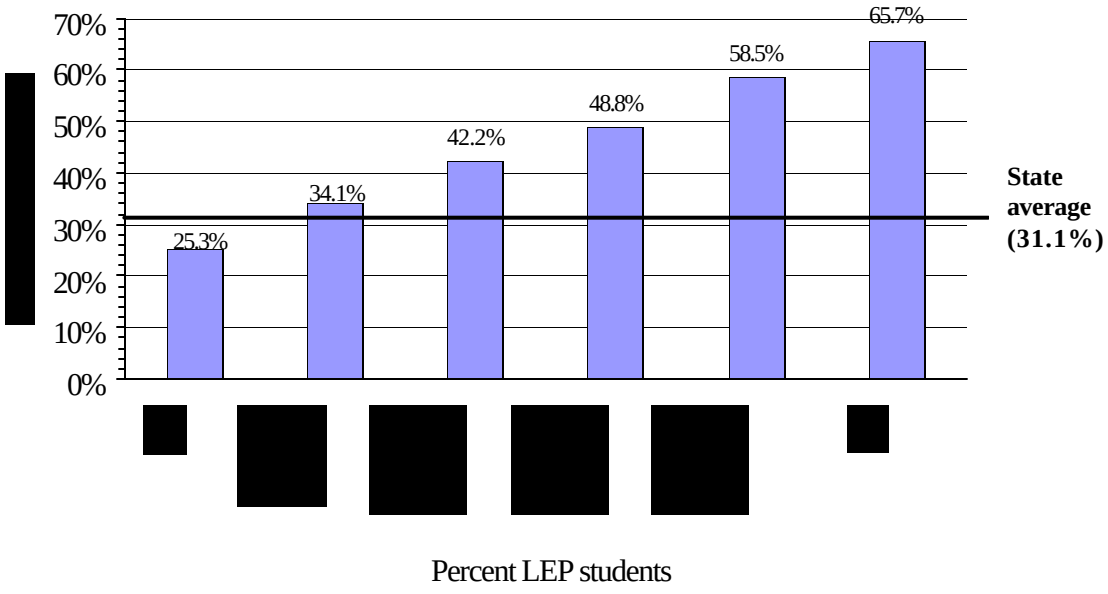
Many factors affect how a student performs on a test, so many factors affect their length of stay in the program. Research has consistently shown that test scores are closely linked to family income—students from low-income families tend to score lower on achievement tests than students from wealthier families. Districts and schools that have a higher percentage of LEP students also tend to have a higher percentage of students from low-income families (see Figure 5-5).[29] While students who are either poor or have limited English proficiency are more at risk, having *both* characteristics greatly increases their likelihood of educational failure.[30] We found that LEP students in schools with higher levels of low-income families tended to stay in the program longer, even though they do not enter the program with lower language proficiency scores. Districts and schools that have higher percentages of both LEP and low-income students face a stiffer challenge in having all students meet high standards than do districts and schools with lower proportions of such students.

[28] Weighted averages are shown for all 296 districts.

[29] The correlation between a district's percentage of LEP students and percentage of low-income students was .618.

[30] Unpublished results from the Early Childhood Longitudinal Study, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, February 2000. Additional factors that can place a student at risk include being from a home with a single parent and being from a home that has a low level of parental education (e.g., high school dropout).

Figure 5-5: Districts With Higher Levels of LEP Students Have a Higher Percentage of Low-Income Students



Note: Percentage of low-income students is measured as the percentage of students eligible for free or reduced-price meals.

Other analyses found that a district's level of low-income students had a stronger negative relationship with WASL and norm-referenced test scores than the level of LEP students. These relationships are stronger for reading scores than for math scores (see Table 5-6), reflecting the difficulty low-income and LEP students have on language-related tests.

Table 5-6: Correlation Results[1]

		Reading		Mathematics	
Elementary Grades	Percent LEP	ITBS	Percent Meeting WASL Standard	ITBS	Percent Meeting WASL Standard
Percent low-income	.618	-.811	-.792	-.739	-.715
Percent LEP		-.640	-.613	-.542	-.452
Middle Grades					
Percent low-income	.609	-.813	-.766	-.727	-.703
Percent LEP		-.601	-.495	-.468	-.332

[1] All correlations are for school year 1999-2000 and are statistically significant.

IMPACT OF PROGRAMS ON ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT AND LENGTH OF STAY

One criterion that has been used to assess the effectiveness of educational models serving LEP students has been their "length of stay" in the particular programs in question. This raises two issues: (1) how long it takes to learn academic English, and (2) the impact of instruction in a student's primary language on the ability to learn English. Appendix E provides more information on these issues.

Developing Proficiency in "Academic English" Takes Years

For many LEP students, schools provide their first significant contact with English. Several major studies have emphasized the long-term nature of learning English. Since the language used in school is unique and becomes increasingly complex as students progress from one grade to the next, the task of achieving proficiency in *academic* English becomes even more difficult.

Numerous studies have found that it takes more than three years for LEP students to achieve academic proficiency in English. LEP students, especially those at intermediate levels of language development, exhibit a large discrepancy between oral language development and reading and writing skills. One researcher recently found that for LEP students who enter school in kindergarten, it is not until the 5th grade that lagging reading and writing abilities merged with oral abilities.[31] Others have found that it takes even longer to achieve grade-level proficiency in academic subjects in another language. Even under ideal language learning conditions (e.g., advantaged students, support of the home language, and cognitively demanding curriculum), the process can take up to ten years for students to fully develop an academic knowledge of English.

Effect of Instruction in the Primary Language on Length of Stay

Most research suggests that continued development of the first language plays a positive and significant role in successful second-language development. Studies have found that proficiency in a student's primary language is a predictor in their future English-language development and that instruction in the primary language does not hinder English-language development. In general, research has found the following regarding the academic achievement of LEP students, which affects the length of stay in Washington's program.

- The greater a student's proficiency in the primary language, the more likely the student will become proficient in English in the future.
- The use of primary-language instruction with LEP students contributes to their development of and academic achievement in English.
- Instructing LEP students only in English does not in and of itself result in superior achievement in English.

[31] *Setting Expected Gains For Non And Limited English Proficient Students*, De Avila, E., National Center for Bilingual Education, Resource Collection Series (8), 1997.

- Children in effectively implemented bilingual programs develop language and literacy skills in two languages and benefit from the transfer of these skills across languages.

States are taking different approaches to educating LEP students. The citizens of California recently passed a proposition that effectively eliminated bilingual education (see box below). Texas has taken the opposite approach, expanding bilingual education in light of recent research findings (see box on next page).

California's Proposition 227

In June 1998 California voters passed Proposition 227 which was to end bilingual education. The law required all children in California public schools "to be taught English by being taught in English." Voters had the perception that instruction provided in students' primary language hindered the acquisition of English and was responsible for poor academic achievement among LEP students. (In 1998, less than one-third of California's 1.5 million LEP students were enrolled in a bilingual program taught by a teacher who had bilingual credentials, so their low academic scores could not be attributed to bilingual programs.)

Children now entering California's public schools with very little English are to be "observed" for 30 calendar days. This generally occurs in an English-language classroom. After 30 days, school personnel must decide if a child has enough fluency in English to manage in a mainstream English classroom. If not, the student is eligible to receive one year of "Sheltered English Immersion," a program of English language instruction that requires instruction to be "nearly all" in English (the definition of "nearly all" is left to the district's discretion). After one year, children are expected to integrate into mainstream English classrooms where instruction is required to be "overwhelmingly" in English. Teachers and district personal face legal liability if they do not implement the law fully.

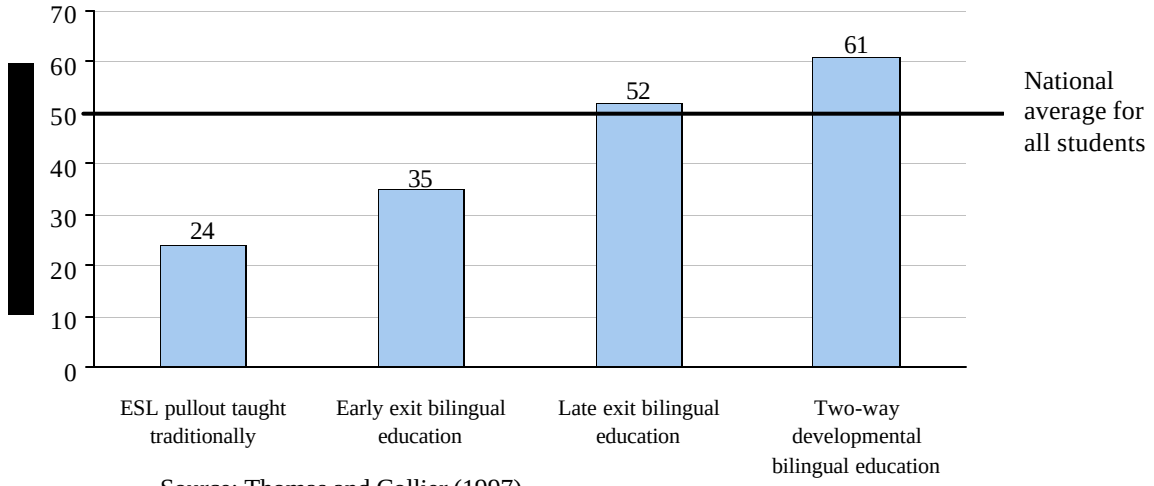
The only legal alternative is through a parental waiver process. Children with special language needs, or whose parents request it, can be placed in "Alternative Programs," most likely some form of bilingual program that includes instruction in the child's primary language. The child must first go through the 30-day observation period. Some districts, particularly those with longstanding bilingual programs, have pursued district-wide waivers in order to maintain their existing programs.

When California released its test scores in August 2000, several national newspapers ran stories about how LEP students had higher scores, "proving" the success of the approach. However, further analysis of the test data found that the approach may not be working.

- Scores of native English speakers rose as well, just like those of LEP students.
- Scores rose in districts that retained bilingual education.
- Scores rose more among native English speakers from low-performing schools than among LEP students in those schools.
- If the English-immersion approach worked, California should have seen a dramatic increase in the number of LEP students "redesignated" as being fluent in English the next year. However, after two years the annual redesignation rate had improved less than one percentage point (from 7.0 to 7.8 percent). Some districts that kept bilingual education have rates above the state average, while districts that eliminated bilingual programs and were touted by newspapers as "proving" the success of the approach have rates below the state average.

Since learning academic English takes many years, any evaluation of the merits of different educational approaches needs to examine their long-term effects. One ongoing longitudinal study has examined the academic performance of students who entered kindergarten with no proficiency in English and who came from a low socioeconomic background.[32] The study found that academic achievement of students was about the same through grade 3, regardless of the type of program approach. However, student achievement by grade 11 was much greater for those who had been in elementary school programs that provided significant instruction in their primary language for 4–6 years (see Figure 5-6).

Figure 5-6: Average Performance of Grade 11 Students Who Started Kindergarten as Non-English Speakers



Source: Thomas and Collier (1997)

The Texas Approach

Prior to this year, Texas policy mandated that districts with 20 or more LEP students speaking the same language in the same grade must provide bilingual instruction, in either an "early" or "late" exit program. These two exit programs provide students instruction in their primary language, to a diminishing degree, over either three or five years. (Districts must provide ESL instruction if they do not meet the 20-student criterion.) In response to the research of Thomas and Collier, Texas has eliminated the "early exit" option. Districts are now providing instruction in students' primary language over a longer period of time and the transition to ESL or English-only classes takes place at a slower pace. The state is also considering the elimination of traditional ESL pullout programs.

Texas is making changes related to the training of "regular" classroom teachers as well. It now pays the full tuition for teachers interested in obtaining an ESL and/or bilingual endorsement and who will teach LEP students. The state's goal is to have all classroom teachers fully endorsed in ESL instruction. Many teacher education programs in Texas are now requiring all new teachers to have at least six credits of ESL training.

[32] *School Effectiveness For Language-Minority Children,* Thomas, W., & Collier, V., National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, December 1997. The same results were found with other cohorts of students with similar backgrounds.

While time and resources limited the scope of our analysis of these issues in Washington, we found similar patterns when analyzing data on more than 15,000 LEP students. As noted in Section 2, we found that students who were receiving significant instruction in both their primary language and in English averaged less time in the program than those who received less instruction in their primary language.

OTHER FACTORS INFLUENCING LENGTH OF STAY

In addition to the family background and the type of educational approach used, other factors can contribute to the number of students staying in the program beyond three years in Washington.

- Students can enter the program more easily than they can exit the program. Oral language abilities are assessed to enter the program, but academic criteria, based on a written test, are used to exit the program. LEP students generally score below their English-speaking peers on academic tests. As noted above, LEP students often come from low-income families. Thus, students may stay in the program for general academic reasons apart from their English-language proficiency.

- Poorly implemented programs will not educate LEP students as effectively as well-run programs that use proven language acquisition strategies. Research has been hampered by a lack of information on the quality of programs. Poorly run programs will cancel out the effects of successful programs in evaluation studies.

- The quality of instruction and the level of expectations can affect the length of stay. Students with well-qualified teachers who have high expectations tend to have higher levels of academic achievement.

- Districts in Washington that serve many LEP students tend to have an average length of stay that is longer than districts serving fewer students.[33] The reason for this trend is unclear. Perhaps districts with a large number of students in the program may have difficulty finding enough qualified staff to meet students' needs. These districts may rely more heavily on the regular classroom teacher, who may not be sufficiently trained, to provide instruction to LEP students.

- Some LEP students simply take longer to achieve English proficiency than others. Based on our analysis of data provided by 46 districts on over 15,000 LEP students, we found the following patterns:[34]

    - Students who arrive with little or no formal education average more time in the program than those who have received some previous education.

[33] Different analyses examining the relationship between length of stay and the number of LEP students served all found the same positive relationship and were all statistically significant.
[34] Results from multiple regression analyses and correlations were statistically significant.

- Students who speak the languages of less-developed countries tend to be enrolled longer in the program than other LEP students who speak the languages of more-developed countries. Students from more-developed countries may have had some exposure to English or another second language before entering American schools; students from less-developed countries may be affected by socioeconomic factors that are closely linked to lower test scores, as discussed earlier in this section.
- Migrant LEP students and those in special education programs tend to be enrolled in the program longer.
- Students who enter the program with lower language proficiency scores stay in the program longer. These students simply have more to learn, which affects their time in the program.

Some research has found that students of different ages learn a second language at different speeds. For example, immigrant students under age 12 with at least two years of education in their native country reach average achievement levels in five to seven years. However, students older than age 12 who face challenging subject matter in a second language may take as long as ten years to catch up. While older students were in the program in Washington longer than younger students, this may be due to the fact that younger students had already left the program, leaving a relatively few older students in the program who have been served for a longer period of time. Without longitudinal analyses of entry and exit data for students served by the program, we cannot determine if age is related to length of stay. Studies of how age affects language acquisition have come to different conclusions.

CONCLUSION AND NEXT STEPS
SECTION 6

The previous sections raise a number of issues that have implications about the way the program is designed and implemented. Some work is underway to address some of these issues. For example, a bilingual advisory committee is exploring the possibility of (1) selecting one test to determine program eligibility, (2) developing English language achievement standards to monitor student progress toward English fluency, and (3) designing a data collection system that would enable ongoing assessment and monitoring of program effectiveness. In addition, the State Auditor is examining a sample of districts to determine the extent to which students are transitioned out of the program properly.

Discussion needs to occur about other issues as well. This section describes some of the implications of this report and the types of research that need to be conducted in the future in order to improve the effectiveness of the program and ultimately the performance of LEP students.

STUDY IMPLICATIONS

Research has shown the benefit of academic instruction in a student's primary language while the student learns English, both in terms of the impact on the length of stay in the program and the future academic success of LEP students. However, the sheer number of languages spoken in many districts and a shortage of well-trained staff who can provide bilingual or ESL instruction potentially makes LEP students more at risk of failing to meet the state's high academic standards. Thus, ways need to be found to improve the instruction of the growing number of LEP students while operating under staff-related constraints.

Providing Primary Language Instruction: Recent comprehensive studies of programs serving LEP students confirm a strong positive relationship between the amount of instruction students receive in their primary language and (1) the rate at which they acquire English as a second language, and (2) the long-term academic achievement of LEP students. Linguistic development, cognitive development, and academic development are interdependent processes and should all be supported simultaneously if educators are to succeed in developing deep levels of English proficiency among LEP students. So to the extent possible, schools need to provide LEP students with cognitively complex academic instruction through their first language for as long as possible, while providing cognitively complex instruction through the second language for part of the school day in increasing amounts as English proficiency increases.

Improving the Quality of Curriculum: LEP students can and should be expected to participate in high-quality curriculum. If a curriculum is properly designed for LEP students, they can learn challenging content in language arts, mathematics, and science while gaining literacy in English. Most schools tend to treat the education of LEP students as a remedial issue, assuming LEP students must learn English before they can learn the standard curriculum designed for "mainstream" students. Exemplary schools studied by the U.S. Department of Education show that assumption is not warranted (see Appendix E).[35] This requires a shift from a teacher-centered to a student-centered instructional philosophy.

Improving Staff Quality: LEP students need access to properly qualified, highly skilled teachers. Yet teaching aides continue to be responsible for the majority of specialized ESL instruction that LEP students receive. Moreover, LEP students are likely to spend most of their time with "regular" classroom teachers who have neither the background nor training in educating second language learners. Districts can actively support schools with LEP students by helping with teacher and aide recruitment and by providing professional development opportunities to all staff who have contact with LEP students. OSPI can also explore ways to help districts identify sources of additional funding to help address this issue. The additional funds could be used for various purposes, such as paying tuition costs associated with ESL/bilingual coursework or providing a small stipend for teachers who acquire endorsements.

Focus on Program Components: Programs are a complex series of components, and programs that share the same "label" can vary greatly, both in terms of these underlying components and in terms of student achievement outcomes. A better approach to finding effective methods of educating LEP students is to go beyond a debate about broad program categories and identify district, school, and classroom level factors that support the academic achievement of the students.

Improving Program Data: Each year OSPI collects information from districts receiving program funding, checks the data for internal consistency, and contacts districts when discrepancies were found. Nevertheless, these district-level data have a number of limitations. The student-level data collected as part of the state assessments (e.g., WASL and ITBS) provide information about students enrolled in language-acquisition programs and the languages spoken, but problems have been found with the accuracy and completeness of these data as well. Studies of program effectiveness for LEP students are often flawed because of: (1) inaccurate or misleading program labeling, or widely divergent implementation of similarly labeled programs; (2) the lack of longitudinal data and random sampling; and (3) the lack of classroom observations and interviews with program stakeholders (including school staff, students, parents, and community members). Current OSPI data collection forms ask for district-level data on instructional

[35] For more information on the findings, conclusions, and case studies, see *School Reform and Student Diversity*, Volumes I and II, U.S. Department of Education, April 1997.

focus and program delivery without regard to variations of implementation. When student-level data are aggregated to the district level, analyses of individual student characteristics cannot occur.

These data limitations make it difficult to conduct a comprehensive review of programs serving LEP students in Washington. Better data are needed at the student and school levels in order to answer questions related to program effectiveness.

TOPICS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

While many research questions need to be answered about the education of LEP students, answering two general questions would help determine the relative effectiveness of programs administered in Washington. These questions relate to how various program and instructional approaches and the resources outside the school (e.g., community involvement) impact both student achievement and the length of stay in the program.

1. **How do variations in program components and implementation impact academic achievement and length of stay in programs serving LEP students in Washington State?**

To answer this question, information needs to be collected at the *school and student level* using a mixture of qualitative and quantitative methodologies. Selecting a group of Washington schools for case study analyses (including surveys, interviews, and classroom observations) would allow for an analysis of specific program components and the quality of program implementation rather than comparing programs based on imprecise labels. In addition to providing a catalog of "best practices" that could be disseminated to schools that serve LEP students, a number of interesting questions could be answered using these data. For instance, once schools with particularly effective combinations of program components have been identified, student-level data could be collected to form the baseline for a longitudinal analysis of the length of stay and achievement in well-run programs. Another benefit of case studies of programs serving LEP students is that the information gathered will allow OSPI to amend end-of-year reporting forms to request more specific data from schools and districts with regard to the components of programs that are actually in place in schools and districts in Washington State.

Undertaking other longitudinal studies using randomly selected students in programs throughout the state would provide specific baseline data that would allow for the analysis of individual student characteristics upon program entry, during the time they spend in the program, and in the years following their exit from the program. The collection of data aggregated at the district level precludes the possibility of analyzing the student characteristics (e.g., English-language proficiency upon program entry, migrant or special education status, and

statewide assessment scores) of individuals who may exit "early" or "late" from programs. These analyses would also allow for comparisons with national longitudinal research which suggests that students in certain types of bilingual programs make significant gains on norm-referenced English-language achievement tests during the years following program participation—gains that are undetected by program evaluations focused on short-term achievement.

2. How do community resources devoted to English-language acquisition, and school-community partnerships supporting second-language learners, impact the success of LEP programs in schools?

Research has found that school-community connections are part of the characteristics of successful schools. However, LEP students have unique needs than may require different forms of school-community partnerships. Schools in neighborhoods with programs that provide support to second-language learners outside of school are likely to have more success with those students in school. However, research to provide evidence of this likelihood is scarce. Case studies of schools in such neighborhoods and of schools that have forged meaningful partnerships with community organizations would shed light on the relative importance of these connections in terms of English-language development, academic achievement, and length of stay for students in programs. Results of this type of research would provide information to schools seeking to develop relationships with community-based organizations.

APPENDIX A

FEDERAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS SUPPORTING LEP STUDENTS

Various federal education programs can provide funding for LEP students. The table below describes these programs and the estimated funding amounts available nationally for school year 1999–00.

Table A-1: Federal Education Programs That Can Provide Support Services to LEP Students

Federal Program [a]	FY 1999 Funding (est.)[b]	Program Description
Education for Disadvantaged Children (Title I)	$7.7 billion	Helps disadvantaged children succeed in schools. LEP students may participate if they come from disadvantaged backgrounds and are at risk of failing in school or if they attend a school that has a schoolwide program.
Bilingual Education Act (20 USC 7401–7491)	$224 million	Helps ensure that LEP students master English and develop high levels of academic attainment in content areas. Provides both state and local grants.
Emergency Immigrant Education Program (20 USC 7541–7549)	$150 million	Provides grants to school districts with unexpectedly large increases in the student population due to immigration.
Migrant Education Program (20 USC 6391–6399)	$355 million	Provides funds to states to help educate the children of migrant agricultural workers, including migratory fishers and dairy workers.
Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education and Applied Technology Act (20 USC 2301 et Seq.)	$1.2 billion	Provides funds to improve the quality of vocational education and provide access to vocational training to special populations, such as disadvantaged and disabled students.
Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (20 USC 1400 et Seq.)	$5.1 billion	Supports special education for infants, toddlers, children, and youth with disabilities.

[a] Other federal programs may also support services to LEP students, so long as these students qualify to receive services under the programs' guidelines for participation.

[b] Estimate based on U.S. Department of Education Fiscal Year 1999 Budget.

Source: *Public Education: Title I Services Provided to Students With Limited English Proficiency*, U.S. General Accounting Office, December 1999.

APPENDIX B

LANGUAGES SPOKEN

Table B-1: Languages Spoken by LEP Students, by Number of Students

Students	Language	Students	Language	Students	Language	Students	Language
40,662	Spanish	51	Chinese-Fukienese	8	Kmhmu	2	Mongolian
5,480	Russian	47	Indonesian	8	Malayalam	2	Navajo
3,201	Vietnamese	43	Quileute	8	Swedish	2	Nyanja
2,895	Ukrainian	38	Swahili	7	Kakwa	2	Pali
1,444	Cambodian	37	Moldavian	7	Manchu	2	Pohnpeian
1,804	Korean	32	Tongan	6	Bengali	2	Romansch
1,047	Tagalog	26	Chamorro	6	Finnish	2	Slovak
913	Chinese-Cantonese	24	Turkish	6	Ibo	2	Suri
892	Somali	23	Afrikaans	6	Pahlavi	2	Urian
626	Punjabi	22	Estonian	6	Sudanese-Arabic	1	Berber
436	Chinese-Mandarin	22	Fijian	5	Chao	1	Bisaya
428	Arabic	20	Cebuano	5	Georgian	1	Chewa
427	Bosnian	20	Haitian Creole	5	Kazakh	1	C.R. Sehapti
413	Japanese	20	Tibetan	5	Krio	1	Coptic
403	Lao	19	African	5	Nuer	1	Cowichan
347	Sahaptian	18	Czech	5	Sinhalese	1	Dire
333	Samoan	18	Italian	4	Acholi	1	Durcese
330	Rumanian	17	Byelorussian	4	Creole	1	Eritai
322	Hmong	17	Dutch	4	Icelandic (old)	1	Guarani
242	Amharic	16	Burmese	4	Liberian	1	Jamaican
230	Tigrinya	16	Cham	4	Twi	1	Kannada
224	Serbo-Croation	16	Ethiopian	3	Akan	1	Kishinau
208	Hindi	16	Norwegian	3	Croation	1	Kru
190	Makah	15	Armenian	3	Igbo	1	Luo
177	Mien	14	Greek-Modern	3	Luganda	1	Marquesan
163	Farsi	14	Khmer	3	Malay	1	Native American
145	Ilokano	13	Chuuk	3	Marathi	1	Nez Perce
132	Thai	13	Hungarian	3	Mordvin	1	Nigerian
120	Oromo	13	Lithuanian	3	Nepali	1	Ouolof
118	German	12	Egyptian-Arabic	3	Trukese	1	Salish
117	Kurdish	12	Gijarati	3	Yakima	1	Sao
115	Urdu	12	Hebrew-Modern	2	Azerbaijani	1	Taishan
87	Bulgarian	12	Hoh	2	Bekol	1	Uigur
85	French	12	Tilugu	2	Chungki	1	Ute
84	Portuguese	11	Danish	2	Fallani	1	Yap
77	Polish	11	Papago	2	Ga	1	Yoruba
70	Albanian	11	Wolof	2	Hopi	58	Unknown
62	Chinese-Taiwanese	10	Latvian	2	Inuktitut		
61	Toishanese	9	Pashto	2	Javanese		
56	Marshallese	9	Tamil	2	Kikuyu		159 languages
55	Mixteco	8	Hawaiian	2	Kinyarwanda		66,281 students

Table B-2: Languages Spoken by LEP Students, by Language

Students	Language	Students	Language	Students	Language	Students	Language
4	Acholi	22	Estonian	1	Kru	5,480	Russian
19	African	16	Ethiopic	117	Kurdish	347	Sahaptian
23	Afrikaans	2	Fallani	403	Lao	1	Salish
3	Akan	163	Farsi	10	Latvian	333	Samoan
70	Albanian	22	Fijian	4	Liberian	1	Sao
242	Amharic	6	Finnish	13	Lithuanian	224	Serbo-Croatian
428	Arabic	85	French	3	Luganda	5	Sinhalese
15	Armenian	2	Ga	1	Luo	2	Slovak
2	Azerbaijani	5	Georgian	190	Makah	892	Somali
6	Bengali	118	German	3	Malay	40,662	Spanish
1	Berber	14	Greek, Modern	8	Malayalam	6	Sudanese-Arabic
2	Bikol	1	Guarani	7	Manchu	2	Suri
1	Bisaya	12	Gujarati	3	Marathi	38	Swahili
427	Bosnain	20	Haitian Creole	1	Marquesan	8	Swedish
87	Bulgarian	8	Hawaiian	56	Marshallese	1,047	Tagalog
16	Burmese	12	Hebrew, Modern	177	Mien	1	Taishan
17	Byelorussian	208	Hindi	55	Mixteco	9	Tamil
1,444	Cambodian	322	Hmong	37	Moldavian	12	Telugu
20	Cebuano	12	Hoh	2	Mongolian	132	Thai
16	Cham	2	Hopi	3	Mordvin	20	Tibetan
26	Chamorro	13	Hungarian	1	Native American	230	Tigrinya
5	Chao	6	Ibo	2	Navajo	61	Toishanese
1	Chewa	4	Icelandic (0ld)	3	Nepali	32	Tongan
913	Chinese-Cantonese	3	Igbo	1	Nez Perce	3	Trukese
51	Chinese-Fukienese	145	Ilokano	1	Nigerian	24	Turkish
436	Chinese-Mandarin	46	Indonesian	16	Norwegian	4	Twi
62	Chinese-Taiwanese	2	Inuktitut	5	Nuer	1	Uigur
2	Chungki	18	Italian	2	Nyanja	2,895	Ukrainian
13	Chuuk	1	Jamaican	120	Oromo	115	Urdu
1	C.R. Sehapti	413	Japanese	1	Ouolof	2	Urian
1	Coptic	2	Javanese	6	Pahlavi	1	Ute
1	Cowichan	7	Kakwa	2	Pali	3,201	Vietnamese
4	Creole	1	Kannada	11	Papago	11	Wolof
3	Croatian	5	Kazakh	9	Pashto	3	Yakima
18	Czech	14	Khmer	2	Pohnpeian	1	Yap
11	Danish	2	Kikuyu	77	Polish	1	Yoruba
1	Dire	2	Kinyarwanda	84	Portuguese	58	Unknown
1	Durcese	1	Kishinua	626	Punjabi		
17	Dutch	8	Kmhmu	43	Quileute		
12	Egyptian-Arabic	1,804	Korean	2	Romansch		159 languages
1	Eritai	5	Krio	330	Rumanian		66,281 students

APPENDIX C

LENGTH OF STAY DATA

STUDENTS TRANSITIONED OR GRADUATED

STUDENTS ENROLLED MORE THAN THREE YEARS

Table C-1: Number and Percent of Students Transitioned or Graduated, by District

District	Total LEP students served	Number graduated or transitioned	Percent of total
Aberdeen	169	19	11.2%
Anacortes	49	6	12.2%
Arlington	55	9	16.4%
Asotin-Anatone	5	2	40.0%
Auburn	699	44	6.3%
Bainbridge Island	36	14	38.9%
Battle Ground	151	21	13.9%
Bellevue	1,758	274	15.6%
Bellingham	425	59	13.9%
Bethel	93	8	8.6%
Blaine	87	6	6.9%
Bremerton	54	9	16.7%
Brewster	469	44	9.4%
Bridgeport	344	19	5.5%
Burlington-Edison	549	51	9.3%
Camas	29	6	20.7%
Cape Flattery	188	28	14.9%
Cascade	205	12	5.9%
Cashmere	115	22	19.1%
Castle Rock	8	1	12.5%
Central Kitsap	265	32	12.1%
Central Valley	107	11	10.3%
Centralia	231	16	6.9%
Chehalis	76	5	6.6%
Cheney	10	2	20.0%
Clarkston	14	0	0.0%
Clover Park	691	49	7.1%
Colfax	3	0	0.0%
College Place	220	12	5.5%
Columbia (Walla Walla)	54	10	18.5%
Conway	35	3	8.6%
Coupeville	14	0	0.0%
Dayton	45	4	8.9%
East Valley (Spokane)	52	4	7.7%
East Valley (Yakima)	152	17	11.2%
Eastmont	596	45	7.6%
Easton	13	1	7.7%
Eatonville	8	0	0.0%
Edmonds	1,430	151	10.6%
Ellensburg	88	6	6.8%
Elma	45	4	8.9%
Entiat	52	19	36.5%
Enumclaw	37	7	18.9%
Ephrata	211	14	6.6%
Everett	1,135	177	15.6%
Evergreen (Clark)	1,004	145	14.4%

District	Total LEP students served	Number graduated or transitioned	Percent of total
Federal Way	1,838	376	20.5%
Ferndale	179	36	20.1%
Fife	102	1	1.0%
Finley	41	3	7.3%
Franklin Pierce	181	19	10.5%
Goldendale	47	8	17.0%
Grandview	518	4	0.8%
Granger	340	69	20.3%
Granite Falls	5	0	0.0%
Green Mountain	9	0	0.0%
Highland	229	62	27.1%
Highline	1,789	294	16.4%
Hoquiam	84	20	23.8%
Issaquah	204	35	17.2%
Kelso	101	9	8.9%
Kennewick	1,366	67	4.9%
Kent	2,611	192	7.4%
Kiona-Benton City	139	3	2.2%
Kittitas	45	3	6.7%
La Center	7	0	0.0%
La Conner	43	1	2.3%
Lake Chelan	323	28	8.7%
Lake Stevens	81	26	32.1%
Lake Washington	1,245	118	9.5%
Lakewood	16	5	31.3%
Liberty	2	2	100.0%
Lind	28	0	0.0%
Longview	225	16	7.1%
Lyle	12	0	0.0%
Lynden	216	5	2.3%
Mabton	268	15	5.6%
Manson	261	22	8.4%
Marysville	184	0	0.0%
Mead	85	10	11.8%
Mercer Island	95	18	18.9%
Meridian	146	11	7.5%
Methow Valley	5	1	20.0%
Monroe	132	5	3.8%
Montesano	7	0	0.0%
Moses Lake	536	9	1.7%
Mossyrock	5	0	0.0%
Mount Adams	118	16	13.6%
Mount Baker	121	18	14.9%
Mount Vernon	1,397	19	1.4%
Mukilteo	1,403	285	20.3%
Naches Valley	97	16	16.5%
Naselle-Grays Riv. Valley	6	0	0.0%
Nine Mile Falls	2	2	100.0%

District	Total LEP students served	Number graduated or transitioned	Percent of total
Nooksack Valley	114	11	9.6%
North Franklin	504	9	1.8%
North Kitsap	75	3	4.0%
North Mason	13	0	0.0%
North Thurston	230	20	8.7%
Northshore	443	81	18.3%
Oak Harbor	172	16	9.3%
Ocean Beach	47	2	4.3%
Okanogan	184	33	17.9%
Olympia	155	31	20.0%
Omak	79	19	24.1%
Onalaska	23	0	0.0%
Orcas	2	2	100.0%
Orondo	147	19	12.9%
Oroville	120	2	1.7%
Orting	28	9	32.1%
Othello	978	16	1.6%
Palisades	45	1	2.2%
Pasco	3,914	249	6.4%
Pateros	39	8	20.5%
Paterson	18	0	0.0%
Peninsula	39	31	79.5%
Port Angeles	18	1	5.6%
Port Townsend	16	1	6.3%
Prescott	118	8	6.8%
Prosser	636	53	8.3%
Pullman	64	22	34.4%
Puyallup	178	20	11.2%
Quillayute Valley	159	12	7.5%
Quinault Lake	37	0	0.0%
Quincy	628	36	5.7%
Raymond	75	8	10.7%
Renton	841	51	6.1%
Richland	252	17	6.7%
Ridgefield	18	0	0.0%
Riverview	46	6	13.0%
Rochester	64	14	21.9%
Roosevelt	16	0	0.0%
Royal	536	99	18.5%
Seattle	5,447	802	14.7%
Sedro Woolley	97	13	13.4%
Selah	121	3	2.5%
Sequim	36	1	2.8%
Shelton	122	14	11.5%
Shoreline	561	108	19.3%
Snohomish	58	13	22.4%
Snoqualmie Valley	15	2	13.3%
Soap Lake	107	44	41.1%

District	Total LEP students served	Number graduated or transitioned	Percent of total
South Bend	54	8	14.8%
South Kitsap	55	13	23.6%
South Whidbey	6	0	0.0%
Southside	1	0	0.0%
Spokane	899	89	9.9%
Stanwood	45	1	2.2%
Steilacoom	55	4	7.3%
Stevenson-Carson	11	0	0.0%
Sultan	18	3	16.7%
Sumner	76	5	6.6%
Sunnyside	1,211	182	15.0%
Tacoma	2,029	275	13.6%
Tahoma	36	10	27.8%
Tenino	21	0	0.0%
Thorp	1	0	0.0%
Toledo	5	0	0.0%
Tonasket	90	7	7.8%
Toppenish	2,417	113	4.7%
Touchet	42	10	23.8%
Trout Lake	3	0	0.0%
Tukwila	688	41	6.0%
Tumwater	53	13	24.5%
Union Gap	88	4	4.5%
University Place	141	41	29.1%
Vancouver	2,121	87	4.1%
Vashon Island	13	3	23.1%
Wahkiakum	1	0	0.0%
Wahluke	885	64	7.2%
Walla Walla	630	63	10.0%
Wapato	1,032	115	11.1%
Warden	309	26	8.4%
Washougal	55	3	5.5%
Waterville	34	2	5.9%
Wenatchee	1,343	69	5.1%
West Valley (Spokane)	69	0	0.0%
West Valley (Yakima)	89	17	19.1%
White River	8	0	0.0%
White Salmon Valley	223	40	17.9%
Winlock	53	4	7.5%
Woodland	36	3	8.3%
Yakima	4,600	128	2.8%
Yelm	36	3	8.3%
Zillah	94	26	27.7%
State	**66,281**	**6,619**	**10.0%**

Table C-2: Number and Percent of Students Transitioned or Graduated, by Students Served

District	Total LEP students served	Number graduated or transitioned	Percent of total
Seattle	5,447	802	14.7%
Yakima	4,600	128	2.8%
Pasco	3,914	249	6.4%
Kent	2,611	192	7.4%
Toppenish	2,417	113	4.7%
Vancouver	2,121	87	4.1%
Tacoma	2,029	275	13.6%
Federal Way	1,838	376	20.5%
Highline	1,789	294	16.4%
Bellevue	1,758	274	15.6%
Edmonds	1,430	151	10.6%
Mukilteo	1,403	285	20.3%
Mount Vernon	1,397	19	1.4%
Kennewick	1,366	67	4.9%
Wenatchee	1,343	69	5.1%
Lake Washington	1,245	118	9.5%
Sunnyside	1,211	182	15.0%
Everett	1,135	177	15.6%
Wapato	1,032	115	11.1%
Evergreen (Clark)	1,004	145	14.4%
Othello	978	16	1.6%
Spokane	899	89	9.9%
Wahluke	885	64	7.2%
Renton	841	51	6.1%
Auburn	699	44	6.3%
Clover Park	691	49	7.1%
Tukwila	688	41	6.0%
Prosser	636	53	8.3%
Walla Walla	630	63	10.0%
Quincy	628	36	5.7%
Eastmont	596	45	7.6%
Shoreline	561	108	19.3%
Burlington-Edison	549	51	9.3%
Royal	536	99	18.5%
Moses Lake	536	9	1.7%
Grandview	518	4	0.8%
North Franklin	504	9	1.8%
Brewster	469	44	9.4%
Northshore	443	81	18.3%
Bellingham	425	59	13.9%
Bridgeport	344	19	5.5%
Granger	340	69	20.3%
Lake Chelan	323	28	8.7%
Warden	309	26	8.4%
Mabton	268	15	5.6%

District	Total LEP students served	Number graduated or transitioned	Percent of total
Central Kitsap	265	32	12.1%
Manson	261	22	8.4%
Richland	252	17	6.7%
Centralia	231	16	6.9%
North Thurston	230	20	8.7%
Highland	229	62	27.1%
Longview	225	16	7.1%
White Salmon Valley	223	40	17.9%
College Place	220	12	5.5%
Lynden	216	5	2.3%
Ephrata	211	14	6.6%
Cascade	205	12	5.9%
Issaquah	204	35	17.2%
Cape Flattery	188	28	14.9%
Okanogan	184	33	17.9%
Marysville	184	0	0.0%
Franklin Pierce	181	19	10.5%
Ferndale	179	36	20.1%
Puyallup	178	20	11.2%
Oak Harbor	172	16	9.3%
Aberdeen	169	19	11.2%
Quillayute Valley	159	12	7.5%
Olympia	155	31	20.0%
East Valley (Yakima)	152	17	11.2%
Battle Ground	151	21	13.9%
Orondo	147	19	12.9%
Meridian	146	11	7.5%
University Place	141	41	29.1%
Kiona-Benton City	139	3	2.2%
Monroe	132	5	3.8%
Shelton	122	14	11.5%
Selah	121	3	2.5%
Mount Baker	121	18	14.9%
Oroville	120	2	1.7%
Prescott	118	8	6.8%
Mount Adams	118	16	13.6%
Cashmere	115	22	19.1%
Nooksack Valley	114	11	9.6%
Soap Lake	107	44	41.1%
Central Valley	107	11	10.3%
Fife	102	1	1.0%
Kelso	101	9	8.9%
Sedro Woolley	97	13	13.4%
Naches Valley	97	16	16.5%
Mercer Island	95	18	18.9%
Zillah	94	26	27.7%
Bethel	93	8	8.6%
Tonasket	90	7	7.8%

District	Total LEP students served	Number graduated or transitioned	Percent of total
West Valley (Yakima)	89	17	19.1%
Union Gap	88	4	4.5%
Ellensburg	88	6	6.8%
Blaine	87	6	6.9%
Mead	85	10	11.8%
Hoquiam	84	20	23.8%
Lake Stevens	81	26	32.1%
Omak	79	19	24.1%
Sumner	76	5	6.6%
Chehalis	76	5	6.6%
Raymond	75	8	10.7%
North Kitsap	75	3	4.0%
West Valley (Spokane)	69	0	0.0%
Rochester	64	14	21.9%
Pullman	64	22	34.4%
Snohomish	58	13	22.4%
Washougal	55	3	5.5%
Steilacoom	55	4	7.3%
South Kitsap	55	13	23.6%
Arlington	55	9	16.4%
South Bend	54	8	14.8%
Columbia (Walla Walla)	54	10	18.5%
Bremerton	54	9	16.7%
Winlock	53	4	7.5%
Tumwater	53	13	24.5%
Entiat	52	19	36.5%
East Valley (Spokane)	52	4	7.7%
Anacortes	49	6	12.2%
Ocean Beach	47	2	4.3%
Goldendale	47	8	17.0%
Riverview	46	6	13.0%
Stanwood	45	1	2.2%
Palisades	45	1	2.2%
Kittitas	45	3	6.7%
Elma	45	4	8.9%
Dayton	45	4	8.9%
La Conner	43	1	2.3%
Touchet	42	10	23.8%
Finley	41	3	7.3%
Peninsula	39	31	79.5%
Pateros	39	8	20.5%
Quinault Lake	37	0	0.0%
Enumclaw	37	7	18.9%
Yelm	36	3	8.3%
Woodland	36	3	8.3%
Tahoma	36	10	27.8%
Sequim	36	1	2.8%
Bainbridge Island	36	14	38.9%

District	Total LEP students served	Number graduated or transitioned	Percent of total
Conway	35	3	8.6%
Waterville	34	2	5.9%
Camas	29	6	20.7%
Orting	28	9	32.1%
Lind	28	0	0.0%
Onalaska	23	0	0.0%
Tenino	21	0	0.0%
Sultan	18	3	16.7%
Ridgefield	18	0	0.0%
Port Angeles	18	1	5.6%
Paterson	18	0	0.0%
Roosevelt	16	0	0.0%
Port Townsend	16	1	6.3%
Lakewood	16	5	31.3%
Snoqualmie Valley	15	2	13.3%
Coupeville	14	0	0.0%
Clarkston	14	0	0.0%
Vashon Island	13	3	23.1%
North Mason	13	0	0.0%
Easton	13	1	7.7%
Lyle	12	0	0.0%
Stevenson-Carson	11	0	0.0%
Cheney	10	2	20.0%
Green Mountain	9	0	0.0%
White River	8	0	0.0%
Eatonville	8	0	0.0%
Castle Rock	8	1	12.5%
Montesano	7	0	0.0%
La Center	7	0	0.0%
South Whidbey	6	0	0.0%
Naselle-Grays Riv. Valley	6	0	0.0%
Toledo	5	0	0.0%
Mossyrock	5	0	0.0%
Methow Valley	5	1	20.0%
Granite Falls	5	0	0.0%
Asotin-Anatone	5	2	40.0%
Trout Lake	3	0	0.0%
Colfax	3	0	0.0%
Orcas	2	2	100.0%
Nine Mile Falls	2	2	100.0%
Liberty	2	2	100.0%
Wahkiakum	1	0	0.0%
Thorp	1	0	0.0%
Southside	1	0	0.0%
State	**66,281**	**6,619**	**10.0%**

Table C-3: Number and Percent of Students Transitioned or Graduated, by Percent Graduated or Transitioned

District	Total LEP students served	Number graduated or transitioned	Percent of total
Liberty	2	2	100.0%
Nine Mile Falls	2	2	100.0%
Orcas	2	2	100.0%
Peninsula	39	31	79.5%
Soap Lake	107	44	41.1%
Asotin-Anatone	5	2	40.0%
Bainbridge Island	36	14	38.9%
Entiat	52	19	36.5%
Pullman	64	22	34.4%
Lake Stevens	81	26	32.1%
Orting	28	9	32.1%
Lakewood	16	5	31.3%
University Place	141	41	29.1%
Tahoma	36	10	27.8%
Zillah	94	26	27.7%
Highland	229	62	27.1%
Tumwater	53	13	24.5%
Omak	79	19	24.1%
Hoquiam	84	20	23.8%
Touchet	42	10	23.8%
South Kitsap	55	13	23.6%
Vashon Island	13	3	23.1%
Snohomish	58	13	22.4%
Rochester	64	14	21.9%
Camas	29	6	20.7%
Federal Way	1,838	376	20.5%
Pateros	39	8	20.5%
Granger	340	69	20.3%
Mukilteo	1,403	285	20.3%
Ferndale	179	36	20.1%
Cheney	10	2	20.0%
Methow Valley	5	1	20.0%
Olympia	155	31	20.0%
Shoreline	561	108	19.3%
Cashmere	115	22	19.1%
West Valley (Yakima)	89	17	19.1%
Enumclaw	37	7	18.9%
Mercer Island	95	18	18.9%
Columbia (Walla Walla)	54	10	18.5%
Royal	536	99	18.5%
Northshore	443	81	18.3%
Okanogan	184	33	17.9%
White Salmon Valley	223	40	17.9%
Issaquah	204	35	17.2%
Goldendale	47	8	17.0%

District	Total LEP students served	Number graduated or transitioned	Percent of total
Bremerton	54	9	16.7%
Sultan	18	3	16.7%
Naches Valley	97	16	16.5%
Arlington	55	9	16.4%
Highline	1,789	294	16.4%
Bellevue	1,758	274	15.6%
Everett	1,135	177	15.6%
Sunnyside	1,211	182	15.0%
Cape Flattery	188	28	14.9%
Mount Baker	121	18	14.9%
South Bend	54	8	14.8%
Seattle	5,447	802	14.7%
Evergreen (Clark)	1,004	145	14.4%
Battle Ground	151	21	13.9%
Bellingham	425	59	13.9%
Mount Adams	118	16	13.6%
Tacoma	2,029	275	13.6%
Sedro Woolley	97	13	13.4%
Snoqualmie Valley	15	2	13.3%
Riverview	46	6	13.0%
Orondo	147	19	12.9%
Castle Rock	8	1	12.5%
Anacortes	49	6	12.2%
Central Kitsap	265	32	12.1%
Mead	85	10	11.8%
Shelton	122	14	11.5%
Aberdeen	169	19	11.2%
East Valley (Yakima)	152	17	11.2%
Puyallup	178	20	11.2%
Wapato	1,032	115	11.1%
Raymond	75	8	10.7%
Edmonds	1,430	151	10.6%
Franklin Pierce	181	19	10.5%
Central Valley	107	11	10.3%
Walla Walla	630	63	10.0%
Spokane	899	89	9.9%
Nooksack Valley	114	11	9.6%
Lake Washington	1,245	118	9.5%
Brewster	469	44	9.4%
Burlington-Edison	549	51	9.3%
Oak Harbor	172	16	9.3%
Dayton	45	4	8.9%
Elma	45	4	8.9%
Kelso	101	9	8.9%
Lake Chelan	323	28	8.7%
North Thurston	230	20	8.7%
Bethel	93	8	8.6%
Conway	35	3	8.6%

District	Total LEP students served	Number graduated or transitioned	Percent of total
Manson	261	22	8.4%
Warden	309	26	8.4%
Prosser	636	53	8.3%
Woodland	36	3	8.3%
Yelm	36	3	8.3%
Tonasket	90	7	7.8%
East Valley (Spokane)	52	4	7.7%
Easton	13	1	7.7%
Eastmont	596	45	7.6%
Meridian	146	11	7.5%
Quillayute Valley	159	12	7.5%
Winlock	53	4	7.5%
Kent	2,611	192	7.4%
Finley	41	3	7.3%
Steilacoom	55	4	7.3%
Wahluke	885	64	7.2%
Clover Park	691	49	7.1%
Longview	225	16	7.1%
Blaine	87	6	6.9%
Centralia	231	16	6.9%
Ellensburg	88	6	6.8%
Prescott	118	8	6.8%
Kittitas	45	3	6.7%
Richland	252	17	6.7%
Chehalis	76	5	6.6%
Ephrata	211	14	6.6%
Sumner	76	5	6.6%
Pasco	3,914	249	6.4%
Auburn	699	44	6.3%
Port Townsend	16	1	6.3%
Renton	841	51	6.1%
Tukwila	688	41	6.0%
Cascade	205	12	5.9%
Waterville	34	2	5.9%
Quincy	628	36	5.7%
Mabton	268	15	5.6%
Port Angeles	18	1	5.6%
Bridgeport	344	19	5.5%
College Place	220	12	5.5%
Washougal	55	3	5.5%
Wenatchee	1,343	69	5.1%
Kennewick	1,366	67	4.9%
Toppenish	2,417	113	4.7%
Union Gap	88	4	4.5%
Ocean Beach	47	2	4.3%
Vancouver	2,121	87	4.1%
North Kitsap	75	3	4.0%
Monroe	132	5	3.8%

District	Total LEP students served	Number graduated or transitioned	Percent of total
Sequim	36	1	2.8%
Yakima	4,600	128	2.8%
Selah	121	3	2.5%
La Conner	43	1	2.3%
Lynden	216	5	2.3%
Kiona-Benton City	139	3	2.2%
Palisades	45	1	2.2%
Stanwood	45	1	2.2%
North Franklin	504	9	1.8%
Moses Lake	536	9	1.7%
Oroville	120	2	1.7%
Othello	978	16	1.6%
Mount Vernon	1,397	19	1.4%
Fife	102	1	1.0%
Grandview	518	4	0.8%
Clarkston	14	0	0.0%
Colfax	3	0	0.0%
Coupeville	14	0	0.0%
Eatonville	8	0	0.0%
Granite Falls	5	0	0.0%
Green Mountain	9	0	0.0%
La Center	7	0	0.0%
Lind	28	0	0.0%
Lyle	12	0	0.0%
Marysville	184	0	0.0%
Montesano	7	0	0.0%
Mossyrock	5	0	0.0%
Naselle-Grays Riv. Valley	6	0	0.0%
North Mason	13	0	0.0%
Onalaska	23	0	0.0%
Paterson	18	0	0.0%
Quinault Lake	37	0	0.0%
Ridgefield	18	0	0.0%
Roosevelt	16	0	0.0%
South Whidbey	6	0	0.0%
Southside	1	0	0.0%
Stevenson-Carson	11	0	0.0%
Tenino	21	0	0.0%
Thorp	1	0	0.0%
Toledo	5	0	0.0%
Trout Lake	3	0	0.0%
Wahkiakum	1	0	0.0%
West Valley (Spokane)	69	0	0.0%
White River	8	0	0.0%
State	**66,281**	**6,619**	**10.0%**

Table C-4: Number and Percent of Students Enrolled More Than Three Years, by District

District	Total LEP students served	Number enrolled more than 3 years	Percent of total
Aberdeen	169	42	24.9%
Anacortes	49	21	42.9%
Arlington	55	8	14.5%
Asotin-Anatone	5	0	0.0%
Auburn	699	87	12.4%
Bainbridge Island	36	11	30.6%
Battle Ground	151	44	29.1%
Bellevue	1,758	316	18.0%
Bellingham	425	87	20.5%
Bethel	93	11	11.8%
Blaine	87	27	31.0%
Bremerton	54	19	35.2%
Brewster	469	188	40.1%
Bridgeport	344	132	38.4%
Burlington-Edison	549	84	15.3%
Camas	29	5	17.2%
Cape Flattery	188	131	69.7%
Cascade	205	24	11.7%
Cashmere	115	15	13.0%
Castle Rock	8	0	0.0%
Central Kitsap	265	71	26.8%
Central Valley	107	23	21.5%
Centralia	231	50	21.6%
Chehalis	76	18	23.7%
Cheney	10	2	20.0%
Clarkston	14	0	0.0%
Clover Park	691	83	12.0%
Colfax	3	0	0.0%
College Place	220	76	34.5%
Columbia (Walla Walla)	54	18	33.3%
Conway	35	0	0.0%
Coupeville	14	2	14.3%
Dayton	45	7	15.6%
East Valley (Spokane)	52	6	11.5%
East Valley (Yakima)	152	7	4.6%
Eastmont	596	152	25.5%
Easton	13	0	0.0%
Eatonville	8	0	0.0%
Edmonds	1,430	197	13.8%
Ellensburg	88	13	14.8%
Elma	45	20	44.4%
Entiat	52	3	5.8%
Enumclaw	37	6	16.2%
Ephrata	211	23	10.9%
Everett	1,135	200	17.6%
Evergreen (Clark)	1,004	133	13.2%
Federal Way	1,838	252	13.7%
Ferndale	179	27	15.1%

District	Total LEP students served	Number enrolled more than 3 years	Percent of total
Fife	102	0	0.0%
Finley	41	4	9.8%
Franklin Pierce	181	16	8.8%
Goldendale	47	27	57.4%
Grandview	518	6	1.2%
Granger	340	71	20.9%
Granite Falls	5	0	0.0%
Green Mountain	9	0	0.0%
Highland	229	42	18.3%
Highline	1,789	346	19.3%
Hoquiam	84	0	0.0%
Issaquah	204	28	13.7%
Kelso	101	20	19.8%
Kennewick	1,366	412	30.2%
Kent	2,611	703	26.9%
Kiona-Benton City	139	42	30.2%
Kittitas	45	7	15.6%
La Center	7	0	0.0%
La Conner	43	0	0.0%
Lake Chelan	323	70	21.7%
Lake Stevens	81	8	9.9%
Lake Washington	1,245	339	27.2%
Lakewood	16	1	6.3%
Liberty	2	0	0.0%
Lind	28	13	46.4%
Longview	225	43	19.1%
Lyle	12	0	0.0%
Lynden	216	68	31.5%
Mabton	268	75	28.0%
Manson	261	131	50.2%
Marysville	184	7	3.8%
Mead	85	3	3.5%
Mercer Island	95	12	12.6%
Meridian	146	36	24.7%
Methow Valley	5	0	0.0%
Monroe	132	10	7.6%
Montesano	7	3	42.9%
Moses Lake	536	175	32.6%
Mossyrock	5	0	0.0%
Mount Adams	118	32	27.1%
Mount Baker	121	11	9.1%
Mount Vernon	1,397	414	29.6%
Mukilteo	1,403	127	9.1%
Naches Valley	97	47	48.5%
Naselle-Grays Riv. Valley	6	0	0.0%
Nine Mile Falls	2	0	0.0%
Nooksack Valley	114	16	14.0%
North Franklin	504	26	5.2%
North Kitsap	75	26	34.7%
North Mason	13	0	0.0%
North Thurston	230	27	11.7%

District	Total LEP students served	Number enrolled more than 3 years	Percent of total
Northshore	443	53	12.0%
Oak Harbor	172	24	14.0%
Ocean Beach	47	18	38.3%
Okanogan	184	56	30.4%
Olympia	155	47	30.3%
Omak	79	45	57.0%
Onalaska	23	0	0.0%
Orcas	2	0	0.0%
Orondo	147	48	32.7%
Oroville	120	29	24.2%
Orting	28	3	10.7%
Othello	978	289	29.6%
Palisades	45	9	20.0%
Pasco	3,914	1882	48.1%
Pateros	39	0	0.0%
Paterson	18	0	0.0%
Peninsula	39	0	0.0%
Port Angeles	18	3	16.7%
Port Townsend	16	0	0.0%
Prescott	118	54	45.8%
Prosser	636	194	30.5%
Pullman	64	3	4.7%
Puyallup	178	24	13.5%
Quillayute Valley	159	61	38.4%
Quinault Lake	37	0	0.0%
Quincy	628	178	28.3%
Raymond	75	39	52.0%
Renton	841	133	15.8%
Richland	252	33	13.1%
Ridgefield	18	0	0.0%
Riverview	46	5	10.9%
Rochester	64	7	10.9%
Roosevelt	16	4	25.0%
Royal	536	192	35.8%
Seattle	5,447	2,232	41.0%
Sedro Woolley	97	14	14.4%
Selah	121	31	25.6%
Sequim	36	8	22.2%
Shelton	122	37	30.3%
Shoreline	561	52	9.3%
Snohomish	58	15	25.9%
Snoqualmie Valley	15	0	0.0%
Soap Lake	107	21	19.6%
South Bend	54	19	35.2%
South Kitsap	55	7	12.7%
South Whidbey	6	0	0.0%
Southside	1	0	0.0%
Spokane	899	127	14.1%
Stanwood	45	14	31.1%
Steilacoom	55	2	3.6%
Stevenson-Carson	11	5	45.5%

District	Total LEP students served	Number enrolled more than 3 years	Percent of total
Sultan	18	4	22.2%
Sumner	76	7	9.2%
Sunnyside	1,211	151	12.5%
Tacoma	2,029	669	33.0%
Tahoma	36	9	25.0%
Tenino	21	0	0.0%
Thorp	1	0	0.0%
Toledo	5	0	0.0%
Tonasket	90	11	12.2%
Toppenish	2,417	1,170	48.4%
Touchet	42	11	26.2%
Trout Lake	3	1	33.3%
Tukwila	688	150	21.8%
Tumwater	53	5	9.4%
Union Gap	88	5	5.7%
University Place	141	7	5.0%
Vancouver	2,121	283	13.3%
Vashon Island	13	4	30.8%
Wahkiakum	1	0	0.0%
Wahluke	885	278	31.4%
Walla Walla	630	141	22.4%
Wapato	1,032	487	47.2%
Warden	309	79	25.6%
Washougal	55	30	54.5%
Waterville	34	25	73.5%
Wenatchee	1,343	612	45.6%
West Valley (Spokane)	69	13	18.8%
West Valley (Yakima)	89	6	6.7%
White River	8	0	0.0%
White Salmon Valley	223	92	41.3%
Winlock	53	7	13.2%
Woodland	36	0	0.0%
Yakima	4,600	2068	45.0%
Yelm	36	0	0.0%
Zillah	94	50	53.2%
State	**66,281**	**18,477**	**27.9%**

Table C-5: Number and Percent of Students Enrolled More Than Three Years, by Number Served

District	Total LEP students served	Number enrolled more than 3 years	Percent of total
Seattle	5,447	2,232	41.0%
Yakima	4,600	2,068	45.0%
Pasco	3,914	1,882	48.1%
Kent	2,611	703	26.9%
Toppenish	2,417	1,170	48.4%
Vancouver	2,121	283	13.3%
Tacoma	2,029	669	33.0%
Federal Way	1,838	252	13.7%
Highline	1,789	346	19.3%
Bellevue	1,758	316	18.0%
Edmonds	1,430	197	13.8%
Mukilteo	1,403	127	9.1%
Mount Vernon	1,397	414	29.6%
Kennewick	1,366	412	30.2%
Wenatchee	1,343	612	45.6%
Lake Washington	1,245	339	27.2%
Sunnyside	1,211	151	12.5%
Everett	1,135	200	17.6%
Wapato	1,032	487	47.2%
Evergreen (Clark)	1,004	133	13.2%
Othello	978	289	29.6%
Spokane	899	127	14.1%
Wahluke	885	278	31.4%
Renton	841	133	15.8%
Auburn	699	87	12.4%
Clover Park	691	83	12.0%
Tukwila	688	150	21.8%
Prosser	636	194	30.5%
Walla Walla	630	141	22.4%
Quincy	628	178	28.3%
Eastmont	596	152	25.5%
Shoreline	561	52	9.3%
Burlington-Edison	549	84	15.3%
Moses Lake	536	175	32.6%
Royal	536	192	35.8%
Grandview	518	6	1.2%
North Franklin	504	26	5.2%
Brewster	469	188	40.1%
Northshore	443	53	12.0%
Bellingham	425	87	20.5%
Bridgeport	344	132	38.4%
Granger	340	71	20.9%
Lake Chelan	323	70	21.7%
Warden	309	79	25.6%
Mabton	268	75	28.0%
Central Kitsap	265	71	26.8%
Manson	261	131	50.2%
Richland	252	33	13.1%

District	Total LEP students served	Number enrolled more than 3 years	Percent of total
Centralia	231	50	21.6%
North Thurston	230	27	11.7%
Highland	229	42	18.3%
Longview	225	43	19.1%
White Salmon Valley	223	92	41.3%
College Place	220	76	34.5%
Lynden	216	68	31.5%
Ephrata	211	23	10.9%
Cascade	205	24	11.7%
Issaquah	204	28	13.7%
Cape Flattery	188	131	69.7%
Marysville	184	7	3.8%
Okanogan	184	56	30.4%
Franklin Pierce	181	16	8.8%
Ferndale	179	27	15.1%
Puyallup	178	24	13.5%
Oak Harbor	172	24	14.0%
Aberdeen	169	42	24.9%
Quillayute Valley	159	61	38.4%
Olympia	155	47	30.3%
East Valley (Yakima)	152	7	4.6%
Battle Ground	151	44	29.1%
Orondo	147	48	32.7%
Meridian	146	36	24.7%
University Place	141	7	5.0%
Kiona-Benton City	139	42	30.2%
Monroe	132	10	7.6%
Shelton	122	37	30.3%
Mount Baker	121	11	9.1%
Selah	121	31	25.6%
Oroville	120	29	24.2%
Mount Adams	118	32	27.1%
Prescott	118	54	45.8%
Cashmere	115	15	13.0%
Nooksack Valley	114	16	14.0%
Central Valley	107	23	21.5%
Soap Lake	107	21	19.6%
Fife	102	0	0.0%
Kelso	101	20	19.8%
Naches Valley	97	47	48.5%
Sedro Woolley	97	14	14.4%
Mercer Island	95	12	12.6%
Zillah	94	50	53.2%
Bethel	93	11	11.8%
Tonasket	90	11	12.2%
West Valley (Yakima)	89	6	6.7%
Ellensburg	88	13	14.8%
Union Gap	88	5	5.7%
Blaine	87	27	31.0%
Mead	85	3	3.5%
Hoquiam	84	0	0.0%

District	Total LEP students served	Number enrolled more than 3 years	Percent of total
Lake Stevens	81	8	9.9%
Omak	79	45	57.0%
Chehalis	76	18	23.7%
Sumner	76	7	9.2%
North Kitsap	75	26	34.7%
Raymond	75	39	52.0%
West Valley (Spokane)	69	13	18.8%
Pullman	64	3	4.7%
Rochester	64	7	10.9%
Snohomish	58	15	25.9%
Arlington	55	8	14.5%
South Kitsap	55	7	12.7%
Steilacoom	55	2	3.6%
Washougal	55	30	54.5%
Bremerton	54	19	35.2%
Columbia (Walla Walla)	54	18	33.3%
South Bend	54	19	35.2%
Tumwater	53	5	9.4%
Winlock	53	7	13.2%
East Valley (Spokane)	52	6	11.5%
Entiat	52	3	5.8%
Anacortes	49	21	42.9%
Goldendale	47	27	57.4%
Ocean Beach	47	18	38.3%
Riverview	46	5	10.9%
Dayton	45	7	15.6%
Elma	45	20	44.4%
Kittitas	45	7	15.6%
Palisades	45	9	20.0%
Stanwood	45	14	31.1%
La Conner	43	0	0.0%
Touchet	42	11	26.2%
Finley	41	4	9.8%
Pateros	39	0	0.0%
Peninsula	39	0	0.0%
Enumclaw	37	6	16.2%
Quinault Lake	37	0	0.0%
Bainbridge Island	36	11	30.6%
Sequim	36	8	22.2%
Tahoma	36	9	25.0%
Woodland	36	0	0.0%
Yelm	36	0	0.0%
Conway	35	0	0.0%
Waterville	34	25	73.5%
Camas	29	5	17.2%
Lind	28	13	46.4%
Orting	28	3	10.7%
Onalaska	23	0	0.0%
Tenino	21	0	0.0%
Paterson	18	0	0.0%
Port Angeles	18	3	16.7%

District	Total LEP students served	Number enrolled more than 3 years	Percent of total
Ridgefield	18	0	0.0%
Sultan	18	4	22.2%
Lakewood	16	1	6.3%
Port Townsend	16	0	0.0%
Roosevelt	16	4	25.0%
Snoqualmie Valley	15	0	0.0%
Clarkston	14	0	0.0%
Coupeville	14	2	14.3%
Easton	13	0	0.0%
North Mason	13	0	0.0%
Vashon Island	13	4	30.8%
Lyle	12	0	0.0%
Stevenson-Carson	11	5	45.5%
Cheney	10	2	20.0%
Green Mountain	9	0	0.0%
Castle Rock	8	0	0.0%
Eatonville	8	0	0.0%
White River	8	0	0.0%
La Center	7	0	0.0%
Montesano	7	3	42.9%
Naselle-Grays Riv. Valley	6	0	0.0%
South Whidbey	6	0	0.0%
Asotin-Anatone	5	0	0.0%
Granite Falls	5	0	0.0%
Methow Valley	5	0	0.0%
Mossyrock	5	0	0.0%
Toledo	5	0	0.0%
Colfax	3	0	0.0%
Trout Lake	3	1	33.3%
Liberty	2	0	0.0%
Nine Mile Falls	2	0	0.0%
Orcas	2	0	0.0%
Southside	1	0	0.0%
Thorp	1	0	0.0%
Wahkiakum	1	0	0.0%
State	**66,281**	**18,477**	**27.9%**

Table C-6: Number and Percent of Students Enrolled More Than Three Years, by Percent Enrolled More Than Three Years

District	Total LEP students served	Number enrolled more than 3 years	Percent of total
Waterville	34	25	73.5%
Cape Flattery	188	131	69.7%
Goldendale	47	27	57.4%
Omak	79	45	57.0%
Washougal	55	30	54.5%
Zillah	94	50	53.2%
Raymond	75	39	52.0%
Manson	261	131	50.2%
Naches Valley	97	47	48.5%
Toppenish	2,417	1,170	48.4%
Pasco	3,914	1,882	48.1%
Wapato	1,032	487	47.2%
Lind	28	13	46.4%
Prescott	118	54	45.8%
Wenatchee	1,343	612	45.6%
Stevenson-Carson	11	5	45.5%
Yakima	4,600	2,068	45.0%
Elma	45	20	44.4%
Anacortes	49	21	42.9%
Montesano	7	3	42.9%
White Salmon Valley	223	92	41.3%
Seattle	5,447	2,232	41.0%
Brewster	469	188	40.1%
Bridgeport	344	132	38.4%
Quillayute Valley	159	61	38.4%
Ocean Beach	47	18	38.3%
Royal	536	192	35.8%
Bremerton	54	19	35.2%
South Bend	54	19	35.2%
North Kitsap	75	26	34.7%
College Place	220	76	34.5%
Columbia (Walla Walla)	54	18	33.3%
Trout Lake	3	1	33.3%
Tacoma	2,029	669	33.0%
Orondo	147	48	32.7%
Moses Lake	536	175	32.6%
Lynden	216	68	31.5%
Wahluke	885	278	31.4%
Stanwood	45	14	31.1%
Blaine	87	27	31.0%
Vashon Island	13	4	30.8%
Bainbridge Island	36	11	30.6%
Prosser	636	194	30.5%
Okanogan	184	56	30.4%
Olympia	155	47	30.3%
Shelton	122	37	30.3%
Kennewick	1,366	412	30.2%
Kiona-Benton City	139	42	30.2%

District	Total LEP students served	Number enrolled more than 3 years	Percent of total
Mount Vernon	1,397	414	29.6%
Othello	978	289	29.6%
Battle Ground	151	44	29.1%
Quincy	628	178	28.3%
Mabton	268	75	28.0%
Lake Washington	1,245	339	27.2%
Mount Adams	118	32	27.1%
Kent	2,611	703	26.9%
Central Kitsap	265	71	26.8%
Touchet	42	11	26.2%
Snohomish	58	15	25.9%
Warden	309	79	25.6%
Selah	121	31	25.6%
Eastmont	596	152	25.5%
Tahoma	36	9	25.0%
Roosevelt	16	4	25.0%
Aberdeen	169	42	24.9%
Meridian	146	36	24.7%
Oroville	120	29	24.2%
Chehalis	76	18	23.7%
Walla Walla	630	141	22.4%
Sequim	36	8	22.2%
Sultan	18	4	22.2%
Tukwila	688	150	21.8%
Lake Chelan	323	70	21.7%
Centralia	231	50	21.6%
Central Valley	107	23	21.5%
Granger	340	71	20.9%
Bellingham	425	87	20.5%
Palisades	45	9	20.0%
Cheney	10	2	20.0%
Kelso	101	20	19.8%
Soap Lake	107	21	19.6%
Highline	1,789	346	19.3%
Longview	225	43	19.1%
West Valley (Spokane)	69	13	18.8%
Highland	229	42	18.3%
Bellevue	1,758	316	18.0%
Everett	1,135	200	17.6%
Camas	29	5	17.2%
Port Angeles	18	3	16.7%
Enumclaw	37	6	16.2%
Renton	841	133	15.8%
Dayton	45	7	15.6%
Kittitas	45	7	15.6%
Burlington-Edison	549	84	15.3%
Ferndale	179	27	15.1%
Ellensburg	88	13	14.8%
Arlington	55	8	14.5%
Sedro Woolley	97	14	14.4%
Coupeville	14	2	14.3%

District	Total LEP students served	Number enrolled more than 3 years	Percent of total
Spokane	899	127	14.1%
Oak Harbor	172	24	14.0%
Nooksack Valley	114	16	14.0%
Edmonds	1,430	197	13.8%
Federal Way	1,838	252	13.7%
Issaquah	204	28	13.7%
Puyallup	178	24	13.5%
Vancouver	2,121	283	13.3%
Evergreen (Clark)	1,004	133	13.2%
Winlock	53	7	13.2%
Richland	252	33	13.1%
Cashmere	115	15	13.0%
South Kitsap	55	7	12.7%
Mercer Island	95	12	12.6%
Sunnyside	1,211	151	12.5%
Auburn	699	87	12.4%
Tonasket	90	11	12.2%
Clover Park	691	83	12.0%
Northshore	443	53	12.0%
Bethel	93	11	11.8%
North Thurston	230	27	11.7%
Cascade	205	24	11.7%
East Valley (Spokane)	52	6	11.5%
Ephrata	211	23	10.9%
Rochester	64	7	10.9%
Riverview	46	5	10.9%
Orting	28	3	10.7%
Lake Stevens	81	8	9.9%
Finley	41	4	9.8%
Tumwater	53	5	9.4%
Shoreline	561	52	9.3%
Sumner	76	7	9.2%
Mukilteo	1,403	127	9.1%
Mount Baker	121	11	9.1%
Franklin Pierce	181	16	8.8%
Monroe	132	10	7.6%
West Valley (Yakima)	89	6	6.7%
Lakewood	16	1	6.3%
Entiat	52	3	5.8%
Union Gap	88	5	5.7%
North Franklin	504	26	5.2%
University Place	141	7	5.0%
Pullman	64	3	4.7%
East Valley (Yakima)	152	7	4.6%
Marysville	184	7	3.8%
Steilacoom	55	2	3.6%
Mead	85	3	3.5%
Grandview	518	6	1.2%
Fife	102	0	0.0%
Hoquiam	84	0	0.0%
La Conner	43	0	0.0%

District	Total LEP students served	Number enrolled more than 3 years	Percent of total
Pateros	39	0	0.0%
Peninsula	39	0	0.0%
Quinault Lake	37	0	0.0%
Woodland	36	0	0.0%
Yelm	36	0	0.0%
Conway	35	0	0.0%
Onalaska	23	0	0.0%
Tenino	21	0	0.0%
Paterson	18	0	0.0%
Ridgefield	18	0	0.0%
Port Townsend	16	0	0.0%
Snoqualmie Valley	15	0	0.0%
Clarkston	14	0	0.0%
Easton	13	0	0.0%
North Mason	13	0	0.0%
Lyle	12	0	0.0%
Green Mountain	9	0	0.0%
Castle Rock	8	0	0.0%
Eatonville	8	0	0.0%
White River	8	0	0.0%
La Center	7	0	0.0%
Naselle-Grays Riv. Valley	6	0	0.0%
South Whidbey	6	0	0.0%
Asotin-Anatone	5	0	0.0%
Granite Falls	5	0	0.0%
Methow Valley	5	0	0.0%
Mossyrock	5	0	0.0%
Toledo	5	0	0.0%
Colfax	3	0	0.0%
Liberty	2	0	0.0%
Nine Mile Falls	2	0	0.0%
Orcas	2	0	0.0%
Southside	1	0	0.0%
Thorp	1	0	0.0%
Wahkiakum	1	0	0.0%
State	**66,281**	**18,477**	**27.9%**

APPENDIX D

DISTRICTS OPERATING PROGRAMS FOR LEP STUDENTS

Student and Language Information

District	Languages	Served
Aberdeen	**District Total (6)**	**169**
	Cambodian	10
	Chinese-Cantonese	3
	Korean	1
	Spanish	153
	Tagalog	1
	Vietnamese	1
Anacortes	**District Total (9)**	**49**
	Chinese-Cantonese	4
	Dutch	1
	Greek, Modern	1
	Japanese	2
	Korean	1
	Russian	2
	Spanish	33
	Tagalog	2
	Vietnamese	3
Arlington	**District Total (9)**	**55**
	Chinese-Mandarin	2
	German	1
	Latvian	1
	Polish	1
	Russian	1
	Spanish	42
	Tagalog	2
	Thai	3
	Vietnamese	2
Asotin-Anatone	**District Total (3)**	**5**
	Norwegian	2
	Rumanian	2
	Tagalog	1
Auburn	**District Total (18)**	**699**
	Arabic	9
	Cambodian	5
	Chinese-Mandarin	4
	Chinese-Taiwanese	3
	Hindi	12
	Ilokano	3
	Italian	2
	Korean	3
	Lao	19
	Marshallese	5
	Russian	155
	Samoan	6
	Somali	10
	Spanish	307
	Tagalog	20
	Thai	1
	Ukrainian	103
	Vietnamese	32
Bainbridge Island	**District Total (14)**	**36**
	Arabic	1
	Chinise-Cantonese	2
	Chinese-Taiwanese	1
	Farsi	1
	French	2
	German	4
	Haitian Creole	1
	Ilokano	3
	Indonesian	1
	Japanese	5
	Korean	4
	Polish	2
	Spanish	8
	Thai	1

District	Languages	Served
Battle Ground	**District Total (11)**	**151**
	Bosnian	6
	Cambodian	1
	Hmong	2
	Korean	3
	Norwegian	4
	Rumanian	7
	Russian	64
	Samoan	2
	Spanish	46
	Tagalog	2
	Ukrainian	14
Bellevue	**District Total (50)**	**1,758**
	Albanian	10
	Amharic	3
	Arabic	23
	Armenian	4
	Azerbaijani	2
	Bosnian	24
	Bulgarian	15
	Burmese	2
	Cambodian	22
	Chao	5
	Chinese-Cantonese	70
	Chinese-Mandarin	95
	Chinese-Taiwanese	25
	Croatian	2
	Danish	4
	Estonian	1
	Farsi	24
	French	11
	German	4
	Hebrew, Modern	3
	Hindi	9
	Hmong	28
	Hungarian	1
	Indonesian	6
	Italian	2
	Japanese	145
	Kazakh	1
	Korean	114
	Lao	25
	Lithuanian	2
	Mongolian	1
	Norwegian	2
	Polish	5
	Portuguese	17
	Punjabi	16
	Rumanian	53
	Russian	120
	Samoan	1
	Somali	1
	Spanish	677
Bellevue (cont.)	Swahili	5
	Tagalog	15
	Tamil	4
	Telugu	5
	Thai	9
	Turkish	3
	Ukranian	6
	Unknown	2
	Urdu	19
	Vietnamese	115
Bellingham	**District Total (22)**	**425**
	Cambodian	5
	Chinese-Cantonese	6
	Chinese-Mandarin	4
	Farsi	1
	Finnish	1
	French	2
	German	1
	Greek, Modern	1
	Hindi	1
	Japanese	3
	Khmer	2
	Korean	11
	Portuguese	1
	Punjabi	33
	Russian	48
	Samoan	1
	Serbo-Croatian	3
	Spanish	199
	Tagalog	2
	Thai	3
	Ukranian	48
	Vietnamese	49
Bethel	**District Total (14)**	**93**
	Albanian	3
	Cambodian	3
	Japanese	1
	Korean	28
	Moldavian	14
	Polish	1
	Rumanian	1
	Russian	6
	Spanish	27
	Tagalog	4
	Ukrainian	1
	Urdu	1
	Vietnamese	2

District	Languages	Served
Blaine	**District Total (11)**	**87**
	Arabic	1
	Chinese-Cantonese	1
	Chinese-Mandarin	1
	Chinese-Taiwanese	1
	Fijian	2
	Hindi	4
	Punjabi	5
	Russian	46
	Spanish	18
	Tagalog	1
	Ukrainian	6
Bremerton	**District Total (14)**	**54**
	Cebuano	2
	Chamorro	1
	Chinese-Mandarin	1
	Hawaiian	1
	Japanese	1
	Korean	4
	Kurdish	10
	Punjabi	1
	Samoan	3
	Spanish	11
	Tagalog	10
	Tamil	1
	Trukese	1
	Vietnamese	7
Brewster	**District Total (1)**	**469**
	Spanish	469
Bridgeport	**District Total (1)**	**344**
	Spanish	344
Burlington Edison	**District Total (4)**	**549**
	German	1
	Russian	5
	Spanish	540
	Vietnamese	3
Camas	**District Total (10)**	**29**
	Chinese-Mandarin	2
	Chinese-Taiwanese	1
	Ethiopic	1
	Japanese	1
	Korean	1
	Lithuanian	1
	Russian	15
	Spanish	3
	Ukrainian	3
	Urdu	1
Cape Flattery	**Makah**	**188**
Cascade	**District Total (2)**	**205**
	French	1
	Spanish	204
Cashmere	**District Total (1)**	**115**
	Spanish	115
Castle Rock	**District Total (2)**	**8**
	Russian	5
	Spanish	3
Central Kitsap	**District Total (19)**	**265**
	Arabic	6
	Chamorro	4
	Chinese-Cantonese	2
	Chinese-Mandarin	9
	Chungki	1
	Gujarati	1
	Haitian Creole	3
	Hawaiian	4
	Ilokano	3
	Japanese	5
	Korean	9
	Kurdish	17
	Papago	3
	Russian	4
	Samoan	4
	Spanish	27
	Tagalog	155
	Thai	5
	Vietnamese	3
Central Valley	**District Total (19)**	**107**
	Albanian	3
	Arabic	2
	Armenian	3
	Berber	1
	Bulgarian	2
	Cambodian	1
	Chinese-Mandarin	3
	Farsi	2
	French	2
	Greek	2
	Korean	5
	Polish	2
	Punjabi	3
	Russian	41
	Serbo-Croatian	5
	Spanish	18
	Ukrainian	2
	Urdu	3
	Vietnamese	7

District	Languages	Served
Centralia	**District Total (8)**	**231**
	Chinese-Cantonese	5
	German	1
	Hindi	1
	Japanese	2
	Punjabi	2
	Russian	7
	Spanish	199
	Ukrainian	14
Chehalis	**District Total (2)**	**76**
	Korean	1
	Spanish	75
Cheney	**District Total (4)**	**10**
	Chinese-Mandarin	2
	Korean	1
	Russian	3
	Spanish	4
Clarkston	**District Total (4)**	**14**
	Bosnian	1
	Russian	2
	Spanish	8
	Vietnamese	3
Clover Park	**District Total (25)**	**691**
	Bulgarian	1
	Cambodian	11
	Chinese-Cantonese	1
	Czech	1
	French	3
	German	34
	Hindi	2
	Italian	1
	Japanese	4
	Korean	160
	Lao	1
	Latvian	2
	Mordvin	1
	Polish	6
	Rumanian	2
	Russian	21
	Samoan	20
	Spanish	344
	Swahili	3
	Tagalog	29
	Thai	3
	Tibetan	1
	Ukrainian	3
	Urdu	4
	Vietnamese	23
Colfax	**District Total (1)**	**3**
	Chinese-Cantonese	3
College Place	**District Total (5)**	**220**
	Igbo	2
	Pohnpeian	2
	Russian	8
	Spanish	207
	Thai	1
Columbia (Walla Walla)	**District Total (3)**	**54**
	Russian	7
	Spanish	46
	Vietnamese	1
Conway	**District Total (2)**	**35**
	Russian	1
	Spanish	34
Coupeville	**District Total (2)**	**14**
	Italian	1
	Spanish	13
Dayton	**District Total (1)**	**45**
	Spanish	45
East Valley (Spokane)	**District Total (11)**	**52**
	Armenian	2
	Georgian	1
	Hindi	1
	Hmong	5
	Italian	1
	Russian	25
	Spanish	10
	Tagalog	1
	Thai	1
	Ukrainian	2
	Vietnamese	3
East Valley (Yakima)	**District Total (1)**	**152**
	Spanish	152
Eastmont	**District Total (3)**	**596**
	Russian	9
	Spanish	553
	Ukrainian	34
Easton	**District Total (1)**	**13**
	Spanish	13
Eatonville	**District Total (2)**	**8**
	Japanese	1
	Spanish	7

District	Languages	Served
Edmonds	**District Total (55)**	**1,430**
	Akan	3
	Amharic	5
	Arabic	43
	Armenian	1
	Bulgarian	21
	Cambodian	32
	Cebuano	1
	Chinese-Cantonese	35
	Chinese-Mandarin	22
	Chinese-Taiwanese	1
	Danish	1
	Egyptian-Arabic	3
	Estonian	1
	Ethiopic	4
	Farsi	23
	Fijian	8
	Finnish	2
	French	2
	Georgian	1
	German	4
	Greek, Modern	5
	Gujarati	1
	Hindi	25
	Hungarian	3
	Ibo	1
	Icelandic (old)	1
	Ilokano	5
	Indonesian	4
	Japanese	9
	Korean	195
	Kurdish	3
	Lao	7
	Malayalam	1
	Nepali	1
	Oromo	1
	Polish	6
	Portuguese	6
	Punjabi	19
	Romansch	1
	Rumanian	13
	Russian	93
	Serbo-Croatian	50
	Somali	1
	Spanish	365
	Swahili	1
	Tagalog	50
	Telugu	1
	Thai	6
	Tigriny	13
	Turkish	4
	Twi	2
	Ukrainian	151
	Urdu	25
Edmonds (cont.)	Vietnamese	147
	Wolof	1
Ellensburg	**District Total (6)**	**88**
	Chinese-Taiwanese	1
	Javanese	1
	Korean	2
	Punjabi	1
	Spanish	82
	Vietnamese	1
Elma	**District Total (6)**	**45**
	Cambodian	12
	Chinese-Cantonese	3
	Japanese	1
	Spanish	29
Entiat	**District Total (1)**	**52**
	Spanish	52
Enumclaw	**District Total (1)**	**37**
	Spanish	37
Ephrata	**District Total (7)**	**211**
	German	1
	Marathi	1
	Punjabi	1
	Russian	10
	Spanish	179
	Ukrainian	17
	Vietnamese	2
Everett	**District Total (31)**	**1,135**
	Arabic	117
	Bosnian	4
	Bulgarian	2
	Cambodian	19
	Chinese-Cantonese	5
	Chinese-Mandarin	3
	Farsi	6
	French	1
	German	4
	Hindi	3
	Hmong	6
	Hungarian	2
	Indonesian	1
	Japanese	1
	Korean	47
	Kurdish	1
	Lao	14
	Marshallese	16
	Pali	1
	Polish	4
	Punjabi	24

District	Languages	Served
Everett (cont.)	Rumainian	8
	Russian	238
	Serbo-Croatian	2
	Spanish	258
	Swedish	1
	Tagalog	7
	Thai	2
	Ukrainian	194
	Urdu	8
	Vietnamese	136
Evergreen (Clark)	**District Total (33)**	**1,004**
	Albanian	1
	Arabic	8
	Bosnian	44
	Bulgarian	4
	Cambodian	14
	Chinese-Cantonese	28
	Chinese-Mandarin	8
	Ethiopic	2
	Farsi	6
	German	1
	Hmong	3
	Ilokano	1
	Italian	1
	Japanese	23
	Korean	14
	Kurdish	3
	Lao	2
	Marquesan	1
	Nepali	1
	Portuguese	2
	Punjabi	4
	Rumanian	29
	Russian	46
	Samoan	4
	Serbo-Croatian	2
	Spanish	109
	Tagalog	3
	Tamil	1
	Tibetan	1
	Tongan	1
	Ukrainian	174
	Vietnamese	44
Federal Way	**District Total (44)**	**1,838**
	Acholi	1
	Arabic	14
	Bosnian	1
	Bulgarian	1
	Cambodian	18
	Chinese-Cantonese	10
	Chinese-Mandarin	13
	Chinese-Taiwanese	5
Federal Way (cont.)	Dutch	1
	Farsi	3
	French	7
	German	1
	Gujarati	3
	Hindi	12
	Hmong	8
	Ilokano	5
	Indonesian	1
	Japanese	3
	Kazakh	1
	Kikuyu	1
	Korean	261
	Lao	6
	Malayalam	2
	Marshallese	14
	Mien	1
	Polish	5
	Portuguese	1
	Punjabi	64
	Rumanian	7
	Russian	416
	Samoan	26
	Sao	1
	Sinhalese	3
	Slovak	1
	Somali	26
	Spanish	480
	Swahili	13
	Tagalog	30
	Telugu	3
	Thai	3
	Tongan	6
	Ukrainian	303
	Urdu	5
	Vietnamese	52
Ferndale	**District Total (6)**	**179**
	Cambodian	4
	Polish	1
	Russian	63
	Spanish	80
	Ukrainian	29
	Vietnamese	2
Fife	**District Total (8)**	**102**
	Cambodian	2
	Farsi	3
	Korean	3
	Russian	6
	Samoan	7
	Spanish	79
	Thai	1
	Ukrainian	1

District	Languages	Served
Finley	**District Total (1)**	**41**
	Spanish	41
Franklin Pierce	**District Total (14)**	**181**
	Cambodian	11
	Fijian	1
	German	2
	Indonesian	1
	Korean	36
	Marshallese	1
	Moldavian	8
	Russian	52
	Samoan	1
	Spanish	60
	Tagalog	2
	Thai	2
	Ukrainian	1
	Vietnamese	3
Goldendale	**District Total (7)**	**47**
	Chinese-Cantonese	1
	Columbia River	1
	Greek, Modern	1
	Nez Perce	1
	Sahaptian	1
	Spanish	40
	Yakima	2
Grandview	**District Total (2)**	**518**
	Japanese	1
	Spanish	517
Granger	**District Total (1)**	**340**
	Spanish	340
Granite Falls	**District Total (2)**	**5**
	Korean	1
	Spanish	4
Green Mountain	**District Total (4)**	**9**
	Liberian	4
	Russian	3
	Spanish	1
	Vietnamese	1
Highland	**District Total (2)**	**229**
	Korean	2
	Spanish	227
Highline	**District Total (49)**	**1,789**
	Albanian	6
	Amharic	27
	Arabic	13
	Bosnian	44
Highline (cont.)	Bulgarian	1
	Burmese	7
	Cambodian	113
	Chamorro	2
	Chinese-Cantonese	7
	Chinese-Mandarin	5
	Chuuk	6
	Czech	1
	Dire	1
	Eritai	1
	Fallani	2
	Farsi	11
	Fijian	1
	French	1
	Ga	2
	German	1
	Haitian Creole	13
	Hindi	12
	Hmong	33
	Ilokano	1
	Korean	22
	Kurdish	7
	Lao	10
	Mien	2
	Oromo	5
	Pashto	1
	Polish	5
	Portuguese	2
	Punjabi	74
	Rumanian	6
	Russian	51
	Samoan	52
	Serbo-Croatian	3
	Somali	178
	Spanish	705
	Swahili	2
	Tagalog	32
	Tamil	1
	Thai	2
	Tigrinya	12
	Tongan	6
	Ukrainian	38
	Unknown	1
	Urdu	4
	Vietnamese	257
Hoquiam	**District Total (4)**	**84**
	Cambodian	1
	Korean	10
	Spanish	72
	Yap	1

District	Languages	Served
Issaquah	**District Total (18)**	**204**
	Chinese-Cantonese	6
	Chinese-Fukienese	37
	Farsi	6
	French	1
	Hebrew, Modern	1
	Hmong	13
	Indonesian	1
	Japanese	16
	Korean	29
	Lao	2
	Marshallese	2
	Mien	1
	Portuguese	2
	Russian	7
	Spanish	72
	Tagalog	4
	Thai	2
	Ukrainian	2
Kelso	**District Total (8)**	**101**
	Cambodian	7
	Lao	2
	Moldavian	2
	Rumanian	1
	Russian	10
	Spanish	75
	Tagalog	2
	Ukrainian	2
Kennewick	**District Total (18)**	**1,366**
	Afrikaans	2
	Albanian	3
	Amharic	2
	Arabic	4
	Bosnian	90
	Chinese-Cantonese	6
	Farsi	3
	French	2
	German	1
	Italian	1
	Kakwa	4
	Korean	4
	Kurdish	1
	Lao	16
	Russian	77
	Spanish	1,111
	Ukrainian	15
	Vietnamese	24
Kent	**District Total (71)**	**2,611**
	Acholi	3
	Afrikaans	1
	Albanian	7
	Ambaric	4
	Arabic	11
	Armenian	1
	Bengali	2
	Bosnian	9
	Bulgarian	4
	Burmese	3
	Byelorussian	4
	Cambodian	41
	Chamorro	2
	Chewa	1
	Chinese-Cantonese	41
	Chinese-Mandarin	31
	Croatian	1
	Czech	2
	Ethiopic	1
	Farsi	11
	French	3
	German	4
	Gujarati	1
	Hindi	22
	Hmong	8
	Ibo	3
	Ilokano	1
	Indonesian	3
	Italian	2
	Japanese	11
	Javanese	1
	Kakwa	3
	Kannada	1
	Khmer	9
	Kmhmu	2
	Korean	55
	Krio	2
	Kurdish	37
	Lao	12
	Lithuanian	2
	Malayalam	5
	Mien	1
	Navajo	1
	Nepali	1
	Nuer	5
	Nyanja	1
	Ouolof	1
	Polish	12
	Portuguese	5
	Punjabi	204
	Rumanian	21
	Russian	306
	Samoan	24
	Serbo-Croatian	10
	Slovak	1
	Somali	197
	Spanish	559

District	Languages	Served
Kent (cont.)	Sudanese-Arabic	2
	Suri	2
	Swahili	2
	Swedish	2
	Tagalog	51
	Taishan	1
	Telugu	2
	Thai	3
	Tigrinya	6
	Tongan	1
	Turkish	3
	Ukrainian	616
	Urdu	4
	Vietnamese	200
Kiona-Benton City	**District Total (3)**	**139**
	Spanish	137
	Thai	1
	Ukrainian	1
Kittitas	**District Total (1)**	**45**
	Spanish	45
La Center	**District Total (3)**	**7**
	Cambodian	2
	Rumanian	1
	Spanish	4
La Conner	**District Total (1)**	**43**
	Spanish	43
Lake Chelan	**District Total (3)**	**323**
	Arabic	2
	Russian	4
	Spanish	317
Lake Stevens	**District Total (9)**	**81**
	Arabic	5
	Cambodian	1
	Estonian	2
	Japanese	1
	Lao	2
	Russian	21
	Spanish	23
	Ukrainian	23
	Vietnamese	3
Lake Washington	**District Total (47)**	**1,245**
	Albanain	1
	Arabic	26
	Bosnian	4
	Bulgarian	6
	Burmese	1
	Cambodian	39
Lake Wash. (cont.)	Chinese-Cantonese	122
	Chinese-Taiwanese	6
	Czech	4
	Danish	1
	Farsi	18
	Finnish	3
	French	6
	German	12
	Gujarati	2
	Hebrew, Modern	3
	Hindi	8
	Hmong	91
	Icelandic (old)	1
	Indonesian	4
	Japanese	51
	Korean	79
	Kurdish	5
	Latvian	2
	Marathi	1
	Mongolian	1
	Nyanja	1
	Polish	3
	Portuguese	15
	Punjabi	5
	Rumanian	45
	Russian	92
	Samoan	1
	Serbo-Croatian	2
	Somali	6
	Spanish	460
	Swahili	1
	Swedish	2
	Tagalog	14
	Tamil	1
	Telugu	1
	Thai	11
	Turkish	2
	Ukrainian	20
	Unknown	1
	Urdu	8
	Vietnamese	57
Lakewood	**District Total (4)**	**16**
	Hmong	2
	Russian	1
	Spanish	10
	Tagalog	3
Liberty	**District Total (1)**	**2**
	Ukrainian	2
Lind	**District Total (1)**	**28**
	Spanish	28

District	Languages	Served
Longview	**District Total (11)**	**225**
	Cambodian	20
	Chinese-Cantonese	8
	Ethiopic	1
	Gujarati	2
	Hindi	1
	Japanese	1
	Korean	1
	Russian	30
	Spanish	151
	Tongan	1
	Vietnamese	9
Lyle	**District Total (1)**	**12**
	Spanish	12
Lynden	**District Total (8)**	**216**
	Cambodian	2
	German	1
	Hindi	1
	Punjabi	20
	Russian	18
	Spanish	170
	Ukrainian	1
	Vietnamese	3
Mabton	**District Total (1)**	**268**
	Spanish	268
Manson	**District Total (1)**	**261**
	Spanish	261
Marysville	**District Total (17)**	**184**
	Cambodian	3
	Chinese-Taiwanese	1
	Czech	2
	Egyptian-Arabic	7
	Farsi	1
	Japanese	1
	Korean	12
	Kurdish	6
	Lao	1
	Punjabi	8
	Romansch	1
	Russian	6
	Spanish	92
	Tagalog	14
	Thai	1
	Ukrainian	13
	Vietnamese	15
Mead	**District Total (15)**	**85**
	Bulgarian	7
	Chinese-Taiwanese	2
Mead (cont.)	German	3
	Indonesian	3
	Kinyarwanda	2
	Korean	10
	Marshallese	3
	Portuguese	1
	Rumanian	41
	Serbo-Croatian	1
	Spanish	4
	Tagalog	3
	Ukrainian	2
	Urdu	1
	Vietnamese	2
Mercer Island	**District Total (17)**	**95**
	Albanian	3
	Bosnian	3
	Chinese-Cantonese	6
	Chinese-Mandarin	26
	Danish	2
	German	1
	Japanese	6
	Korean	26
	Kurdish	2
	Norwegian	1
	Polish	3
	Punjabi	1
	Rumanian	1
	Russian	3
	Serbo-Croatian	3
	Spanish	7
	Tagalog	1
Meridian	**District Total (7)**	**146**
	Cambodian	1
	Punjabi	13
	Russian	51
	Serbo-Croatian	2
	Spanish	42
	Ukrainian	35
	Unknown	2
Methow Valley	**District Total (1)**	**5**
	Spanish	5
Monroe	**District Total (4)**	**132**
	Albanian	5
	Latvian	5
	Spanish	121
	Ukrainian	1

District	Languages	Served
Montesano	**District Total (3)**	**7**
	Cambodian	3
	Korean	1
	Spanish	3
Moses Lake	**District Total (11)**	**536**
	Chinese-Cantonese	4
	Farsi	2
	French	2
	Japanese	22
	Portuguese	1
	Punjabi	1
	Rumanian	4
	Russian	53
	Spanish	375
	Swahili	2
	Ukrainian	70
Mossyrock	**District Total (1)**	**5**
	Spanish	5
Mount Adams	**District Total (1)**	**118**
	Spanish	118
Mount Baker	**District Total (4)**	**121**
	Korean	2
	Russian	106
	Spanish	11
	Tagalog	2
Mount Vernon	**District Total (11)**	**1,397**
	Chinese-Mandarin	3
	Japanese	5
	Korean	10
	Mixteco	52
	Punjabi	2
	Russian	57
	Spanish	1,239
	Tagalog	2
	Thai	1
	Ukrainian	25
	Vietnamese	1
Mukilteo	**District Total (35)**	**1,403**
	Afrikaans	19
	Amharic	4
	Arabic	44
	Bosnian	6
	Cambodian	33
	Chinese-Mandarin	8
	Chinese-Taiwanese	1
	Dutch	8
	Farsi	4
	French	18
Mukilteo (cont.)	Hindi	9
	Hmong	11
	Hopi	2
	Hungarian	4
	Icelandic (old)	2
	Indonesian	12
	Italian	3
	Japanese	10
	Korean	119
	Kurdish	9
	Lao	4
	Luganda	3
	Polish	7
	Portuguese	4
	Punjabi	23
	Rumanian	12
	Russian	346
	Sinhalese	2
	Spanish	414
	Tagalog	43
	Thai	3
	Turkish	1
	Ukrainian	131
	Urdu	4
	Vietnamese	80
Naches Valley	**District Total (2)**	**97**
	Spanish	95
	Tagalog	2
Naselle-Grays River Valley	**District Total (1)**	**6**
	Spanish	6
Nine Mile Falls	**District Total (1)**	**2**
	Russian	2
Nooksack Valley	**District Total (4)**	**114**
	Mixteco	3
	Punjabi	8
	Russian	2
	Spanish	101
North Franklin	**District Total (2)**	**504**
	Lao	8
	Spanish	496
North Kitsap	**District Total (12)**	**75**
	Albanian	5
	Estonian	3
	German	1
	Hindi	1
	Japanese	2
	Navajo	1

District	Languages	Served
North Kitsap (cont.)	Russian	7
	Samoan	3
	Spanish	36
	Tagalog	8
	Thai	1
	Vietnamese	7
North Mason	**District Total (1)**	**13**
	Spanish	13
North Thurston	**District Total (20)**	**230**
	Amharic	1
	Cambodian	26
	Chamorro	6
	Chinese-Cantonese	8
	Chungki	1
	Coptic	1
	Durcese	1
	French	1
	German	9
	Ilokano	1
	Japanese	1
	Korean	36
	Lao	3
	Papago	3
	Russian	3
	Spanish	77
	Tagalog	5
	Thai	3
	Trukese	2
	Vietnamese	42
Northshore	**District Total (35)**	**443**
	Amharic	2
	Arabic	1
	Bosnian	3
	Burmese	1
	Cambodian	2
	Chinese-Cantonese	5
	Chinese-Mandarin	18
	Chinese-Taiwanese	1
	Czech	1
	Farsi	1
	Fijian	3
	French	1
	German	2
	Hebrew, Modern	3
	Hindi	2
	Hungarian	1
	Indonesian	2
	Japanese	4
	Korean	35
	Kurdish	3
	Lao	3

District	Languages	Served
Northshore (cont.)	Norwegian	2
	Polish	2
	Portuguese	6
	Punjabi	1
	Rumanian	9
	Russian	25
	Serbo-Croatian	5
	Somali	2
	Spanish	250
	Tagalog	2
	Thai	2
	Ukrainian	26
	Urdu	2
	Vietnamese	15
Oak Harbor	**District Total (12)**	**172**
	Bikol	2
	Dutch	3
	German	1
	Ilokano	8
	Japanese	6
	Korean	4
	Papago	5
	Salish	1
	Spanish	21
	Tagalog	118
	Thai	2
	Vietnamese	1
Ocean Beach	**District Total (3)**	**47**
	Chinese-Cantonese	5
	Spanish	41
	Thai	1
Okanogan	**District Total (1)**	**184**
	Spanish	184
Olympia	**District Total (12)**	**155**
	Cambodian	13
	Chinese-Mandarin	8
	Egyptian-Arabic	1
	German	2
	Hindi	3
	Japanese	4
	Korean	9
	Mordvin	2
	Rumanian	3
	Samoan	2
	Spanish	34
	Vietnamese	74

District	Languages	Served
Omak	**District Total (3)**	**79**
	Chinese-Cantonese	1
	Spanish	77
	Ukrainian	1
Onalaska	**District Total (2)**	**23**
	Russian	4
	Spanish	19
Orcas	**District Total (2)**	**2**
	Russian	1
	Thai	1
Orondo	**District Total (1)**	**147**
	Spanish	147
Oroville	**District Total (1)**	**120**
	Spanish	120
Orting	**District Total (3)**	**28**
	Amharic	8
	Cambodian	4
	Russian	16
Othello	**District Total (3)**	**978**
	Arabic	3
	Hindi	2
	Spanish	973
Palisades	**District Total (1)**	**45**
	Spanish	45
Pasco	**District Total (10)**	**3,914**
	Chinese-Cantonese	4
	Korean	1
	Kurdish	7
	Lao	16
	Portuguese	1
	Russian	83
	Spanish	3,779
	Sudanese-Arabic	3
	Ukrainian	7
	Vietnamese	13
Pateros	**District Total (1)**	**39**
	Spanish	39
Paterson	**District Total (1)**	**18**
	Spanish	18
Peninsula	**District Total (10)**	**39**
	Arabic	1
	Chamorro	4
	Chinese-Taiwanese	1
Peninsula (cont.)	Dutch	1
	Korean	3
	Portuguese	1
	Russian	6
	Spanish	17
	Tagalog	1
	Ukrainian	4
Port Angeles	**District Total (7)**	**18**
	Bulgarian	3
	Chinese-Cantonese	7
	Czech	2
	German	1
	Japanese	3
	Unknown	1
	Vietnamese	1
Port Townsend	**District Total (8)**	**16**
	Amharic	4
	Chinese-Cantonese	1
	German	1
	Norwegian	1
	Russian	1
	Spanish	2
	Thai	4
	Vietnamese	2
Prescott	**District Total (1)**	**118**
	Spanish	118
Prosser	**District Total (4)**	**636**
	Chinese-Taiwanese	1
	Korean	1
	Spanish	633
	Vietnamese	1
Pullman	**District Total (15)**	**64**
	Amharic	1
	Arabic	5
	Chinese-Cantonese	1
	Chinese-Fukienese	11
	French	1
	Japanese	5
	Korean	14
	Pashto	1
	Portuguese	2
	Punjabi	1
	Rumanian	2
	Russian	4
	Spanish	11
	Turkish	1
	Vietnamese	4

District	Languages	Served
Puyallup	**District Total (15)**	**178**
	Albanian	3
	Cambodian	2
	Chinese-Mandarin	7
	Japanese	5
	Korean	19
	Lao	1
	Punjabi	12
	Rumanian	6
	Russian	9
	Samoan	2
	Spanish	105
	Tagalog	4
	Thai	1
	Turkish	1
	Vietnamese	1
Quillayute Valley	**District Total (8)**	**159**
	Chinese-Mandarin	1
	Cowichan	1
	Hawaiian	1
	Hoh	12
	Makah	2
	Quileute	43
	Spanish	98
	Tagalog	1
Quinault Lake	**District Total (1)**	**37**
	Spanish	37
Quincy	**District Total (5)**	**628**
	Bulgarian	1
	German	1
	Spanish	624
	Tagalog	1
	Urdu	1
Raymond	**District Total (4)**	**75**
	Cambodian	12
	Gujarati	1
	Lao	34
	Spanish	28
Renton	**District Total (46)**	**841**
	Albanian	4
	Amharic	4
	Arabic	5
	Bisaya	1
	Bulgarian	1
	Cambodian	13
	Chinese-Cantonese	25
	Chinese-Mandarin	5
	Czech	1
	Danish	1
Renton (cont.)	Estonian	2
	Frasi	3
	Fijian	1
	French	3
	German	2
	Hebrew, Modern	2
	Hindi	13
	Hmong	6
	Ilokano	1
	Indonesian	1
	Japanese	2
	Kazakh	3
	Kishinau	1
	Korean	14
	Lao	17
	Marathi	1
	Mien	1
	Norwegian	2
	Oromo	2
	Pahlavi	2
	Polish	3
	Portuguese	4
	Punjabi	18
	Rumanian	18
	Russian	84
	Samoan	3
	Serbo-Croatian	3
	Somali	50
	Spanish	287
	Tagalog	21
	Thai	5
	Tigrinya	1
	Tongan	4
	Turkish	1
	Ukrainian	122
	Vietnamese	78
Richland	**District Total (22)**	**252**
	Arabic	5
	Bengali	2
	Bosnian	7
	Chinese-Cantonese	5
	Chinese-Mandarin	6
	Chinese-Taiwanese	1
	Czech	1
	Estonian	1
	Farsi	3
	French	3
	Korean	7
	Lao	1
	Portuguese	1
	Punjabi	1
	Rumanian	1
	Russian	38

District	Languages	Served
Richland (cont.)	Serbo-Croatian	32
	Spanish	39
	Thai	2
	Ukrainian	81
	Urdu	2
	Vietnamese	13
Ridgefield	**District Total (5)**	**18**
	Lithuanian	2
	Rumanian	1
	Russian	6
	Spanish	7
	Vietnamese	2
Riverview	**District Total (6)**	**46**
	Cambodian	1
	German	1
	Hmong	9
	Korean	1
	Lao	2
	Spanish	32
Rochester	**District Total (4)**	**64**
	Amharic	4
	Cambodian	1
	Spanish	58
	Thai	1
Roosevelt	**District Total (1)**	**16**
	Spanish	16
Royal	**District Total (1)**	**536**
	Spanish	536
Seattle	**District Total (57)**	**5,447**
	Afrikaans	19
	Amharic	155
	Arabic	27
	Bengali	2
	Burmese	1
	Cambodian	350
	Cebuano	17
	Cham	16
	Chinese-Cantonese	396
	Chinese-Fukienese	1
	Chinese-Mandarin	112
	Chinese-Taiwanese	4
	Creole	4
	Czech	2
	Farsi	9
	Fijian	3
	French	9
	German	4
	Greek, Modern	4

District	Languages	Served
Seattle (cont.)	Hindi	28
	Hmong	43
	Ibo	1
	Ilokano	91
	Indonesian	1
	Jamaican	1
	Japanese	25
	Kikuyu	1
	Kmhmu	6
	Korean	37
	Lao	143
	Lithuanian	2
	Malay	2
	Mien	166
	Native American	1
	Oromo	110
	Pahlavi	4
	Pashto	4
	Portuguese	5
	Punjabi	15
	Rumanian	2
	Russian	54
	Samoan	79
	Serbo-Croatian	12
	Somali	362
	Spanish	1,423
	Swahili	7
	Tagalog	280
	Thai	18
	Tibetan	11
	Tigrinya	172
	Toishanese	61
	Tongan	11
	Turkish	3
	Ukrainian	4
	Unknown	50
	Urdu	12
	Vietnamese	1,065
Sedro Woolley	**District Total (4)**	**97**
	Korean	2
	Spanish	93
	Tagalog	1
	Ute	1
Selah	**District Total (2)**	**121**
	Russian	1
	Spanish	120
Sequim	**District Total (3)**	**36**
	Chinese-Cantonese	2
	Spanish	31
	Vietnamese	3

District	Languages	Served
Shelton	**District Total (4)**	**122**
	Korean	1
	Russian	1
	Spanish	118
	Tagalog	2
Shoreline	**District Total (44)**	**561**
	Albanian	6
	Amharic	6
	Arabic	14
	Bosnian	3
	Burmese	1
	Cambodian	4
	Chinese-Cantonese	36
	Chinese-Mandarin	20
	Chinese-Taiwanese	1
	Chuuk	3
	Danish	1
	Farsi	7
	German	1
	Hindi	18
	Hmong	8
	Ibo	1
	Igbo	1
	Ilokano	2
	Indonesian	5
	Japanese	8
	Khmer	1
	Korean	122
	Krio	3
	Luo	1
	Malay	1
	Marshallese	1
	Norwegian	2
	Pashto	2
	Punjabi	12
	Rumanian	1
	Russian	41
	Somali	7
	Spanish	67
	Swahili	1
	Tagalog	27
	Thai	6
	Tibetan	7
	Tigrinya	16
	Turkish	3
	Twi	2
	Uigur	1
	Ukrainian	23
	Urdu	10
	Vietnamese	58
Snohomish	**District Total (13)**	**58**
	Arabic	2
	Cambodian	1
	Chinese-Mandarin	1
	German	1
	Hindi	1
	Hmong	1
	Korean	2
	Lithuanian	1
	Punjabi	1
	Russian	2
	Spanish	40
	Ukrainian	4
	Vietnamese	1
Snoqualmie Valley	**District Total (3)**	**15**
	Arabic	1
	Lao	1
	Spanish	13
Soap Lake	**District Title (3)**	**107**
	Russian	17
	Spanish	58
	Ukrainian	32
South Bend	**District Title (4)**	**54**
	Cambodian	2
	Korean	1
	Lao	3
	Spanish	48
South Kitsap	**District Title (10)**	**55**
	Chamorro	6
	Chinese-Cantonese	2
	Hawaiian	1
	Hindi	1
	Japanese	1
	Korean	11
	Rumanian	2
	Spanish	16
	Tagalog	14
	Vietnamese	1
South Whidbey	**District Total (4)**	**6**
	Cambodian	2
	Russian	1
	Spanish	2
	Thai	1
Southside	**District Total (1)**	**1**
	Spanish	1

District	Languages	Served
Spokane	**District Total (32)**	**899**
	Albanian	7
	Amharic	4
	Arabic	4
	Bulgarian	8
	Byelorussian	11
	Chinese-Cantonese	5
	Chinese-Mandarin	4
	Chuuk	2
	Ethiopic	1
	Farsi	7
	Fijian	1
	Georgian	1
	German	1
	Haitian Creole	1
	Hindi	1
	Hmong	38
	Hungarian	1
	Japanese	2
	Korean	1
	Lao	5
	Marshallese	14
	Moldavian	4
	Punjabi	5
	Rumanian	4
	Russian	503
	Serbo-Croatian	84
	Somali	1
	Spanish	31
	Tagalog	1
	Thai	1
	Ukrainian	91
	Vietnamese	55
Stanwood	**District Total (4)**	**45**
	Albanian	1
	Korean	2
	Spanish	41
	Vietnamese	1
Steilacoom	**District Total (13)**	**55**
	Chinese-Cantonese	4
	Dutch	1
	German	1
	Hindi	1
	Inuktitut	1
	Korean	11
	Russian	2
	Samoan	6
	Spanish	9
	Tagalog	2
	Ukrainian	10
	Unknown	1
	Vietnamese	6
Stevenson–Carson	**District Total (1)**	**11**
	Spanish	11
Sultan	**District Total (4)**	**18**
	Byelorussian	2
	Lao	2
	Punjabi	1
	Spanish	13
Sumner	**District Total (12)**	**76**
	Chinese-Cantonese	1
	Chinese-Mandarin	1
	Farsi	2
	Inuktitut	1
	Italian	1
	Korean	4
	Polish	1
	Rumanian	1
	Russian	2
	Spanish	57
	Tagalog	2
	Vietnamese	3
Sunnyside	**District Total (5)**	**1,211**
	Arabic	4
	Korean	1
	Spanish	1,203
	Tagalog	2
	Yakima	1
Tacoma	**District Total (31)**	**2,029**
	Afrikaans	1
	Arabic	2
	Bulgarian	1
	Cambodian	497
	Chinese-Cantonese	2
	Chinese-Fukienese	1
	Chinese-Mandarin	3
	Czech	1
	Estonian	3
	Farsi	1
	French	2
	Hawaiian	1
	Ilokano	1
	Japanese	1
	Korean	57
	Kurdish	3
	Lao	23
	Moldavian	9
	Nigerian	1
	Portuguese	4
	Rumanian	5
	Russian	351
	Samoan	60

District	Languages	Served
Tacoma (cont.)	Somali	1
	Spanish	532
	Swahili	1
	Tagalog	15
	Thai	3
	Ukrainian	112
	Vietnamese	334
	Yoruba	1
Tahoma	**District Total (10)**	**36**
	Cambodian	1
	Chinese-Cantonese	1
	Chinese-Mandarin	1
	Italian	1
	Korean	3
	Rumanian	2
	Russian	5
	Spanish	6
	Ukrainian	9
	Vietnamese	7
Tenino	**District Total (3)**	**21**
	Cambodian	6
	Dutch	2
	Spanish	13
Thorp	**District Total (1)**	**1**
	Spanish	1
Toledo	**District Total (1)**	**5**
	Spanish	5
Tonasket	**District Total (1)**	**90**
	Spanish	90
Toppenish	**District Total (3)**	**2,417**
	Chinese-Cantonese	2
	Sahaptian	346
	Spanish	2,417
Touchet	**District Total (1)**	**42**
	Spanish	42
Trout Lake	**District Total (1)**	**3**
	Spanish	3
Tukwila	**District Total (36)**	**688**
	Albanian	1
	Amharic	7
	Armenian	3
	Bosnian	131
	Bulgarian	5
	Cambodian	35
	Chinese-Cantonese	7
Tukwila (cont.)	Ethiopic	4
	Farsi	3
	Fijian	2
	German	3
	Haitain Creole	2
	Hindi	1
	Hmong	1
	Ilokano	1
	Indonesian	1
	Khmer	2
	Korean	2
	Kurdish	3
	Lao	5
	Mien	2
	Oromo	2
	Pali	1
	Pashto	1
	Polish	6
	Punjabi	17
	Russian	31
	Samoan	14
	Somali	50
	Spanish	280
	Tagalog	16
	Thai	6
	Tigrinya	10
	Tongan	2
	Ukrainian	6
	Vietnamese	25
Tumwater	**District Total (8)**	**53**
	Farsi	1
	Korean	14
	Lao	1
	Samoan	2
	Spanish	15
	Tagalog	4
	Tamil	1
	Vietnamese	15
Union Gap	**District Total (1)**	**88**
	Spanish	88
University Place	**District Total (14)**	**141**
	Chinese-Cantonese	1
	Chinese-Mandarin	4
	Chinese-Taiwanese	3
	Egyptian-Arabic	1
	French	1
	Italian	1
	Japanese	4
	Korean	77
	Russian	10
	Spanish	5

District	Languages	Served
Univ. Place (cont.)	Sudanese-Arabic	1
	Tagalog	1
	Ukrainian	21
	Vietnamese	11
Vancouver	**District Total (38)**	**2,121**
	Albanian	1
	Amharic	1
	Arabic	5
	Armenian	1
	Bosnian	47
	Bulgarian	1
	Cambodian	28
	Chamorro	1
	Chinese-Cantonese	7
	Chinese-Mandarin	2
	Chinese-Taiwanese	1
	Danish	1
	Estonian	5
	Ethiopic	2
	Farsi	1
	Georgian	2
	German	3
	Gujarati	1
	Hindi	11
	Japanese	5
	Korean	16
	Kru	1
	Lao	10
	Lithuanian	3
	Mien	3
	Portuguese	3
	Punjabi	5
	Rumanian	19
	Russian	887
	Serbo-Croatian	2
	Spanish	737
	Swedish	3
	Tagalog	4
	Thai	2
	Turkish	2
	Ukrainian	238
	Urdu	1
	Vietnamese	59
Vashon Island	**District Total (6)**	**13**
	Bulgarian	2
	German	1
	Russian	1
	Spanish	5
	Tagalog	3
	Thai	1
Wahkiakum	**District Total (1)**	**1**
	Spanish	1
Wahluke	**District Total (2)**	**885**
	Japanese	1
	Spanish	884
Walla Walla	**District Total (9)**	**630**
	Chinese-Cantonese	1
	Chinese-Fukienese	1
	Hungarian	1
	Japanese	1
	Punjabi	2
	Russian	11
	Spanish	607
	Thai	1
	Vietnamese	5
Wapato	**District Total (2)**	**1,032**
	Ilokano	18
	Spanish	1,014
Warden	**District Total (2)**	**309**
	Korean	1
	Spanish	308
Washougal	**District Total (5)**	**55**
	Cambodian	2
	Hindi	1
	Korean	1
	Russian	40
	Spanish	11
Waterville	**District Total (1)**	**34**
	Spanish	34
Wenatchee	**District Total (11)**	**1,343**
	Arabic	11
	Cambodian	2
	Chinese-Cantonese	1
	Chuuk	2
	Hindi	1
	Italian	1
	Russian	13
	Spanish	1,308
	Thai	2
	Ukrainian	1
	Vietnamese	1

District	Languages	Served
West Valley (Spokane)	**District Total (7)**	**69**
	Chinese-Mandarin	1
	Hmong	6
	Polish	1
	Russian	31
	Spanish	19
	Tagalog	1
	Wolof	10
West Valley (Yakima)	**District Total (2)**	**89**
	Korean	4
	Spanish	85
White River	**District Total (4)**	**8**
	Korean	1
	Polish	1
	Russian	2
	Spanish	4
White Salmon Valley	**District Total (2)**	**223**
	Russian	1
	Spanish	222
Winlock	**District Total (2)**	**53**
	Estonian	4
	Spanish	49
Woodland	**District Total (1)**	**36**
	Spanish	36
Yakima	**District Total (15)**	**4,600**
	Arabic	9
	Cambodian	2
	Chinese-Cantonese	4
	Gujarati	1
	Japanese	1
	Korean	2
	Lao	2
	Manchu	7
	Punjabi	3
	Russian	2
	Serbo-Croatian	3
	Spanish	4,556
	Thai	2
	Urian	2
	Vietnamese	4
Yelm	**District Total (4)**	**36**
	Cambodian	2
	Spanish	32
	Tagalog	1
	Thai	1
Zillah	**Spanish (all)**	**94**

APPENDIX E

SUMMARY OF RESEARCH ON PROGRAMS FOR LEP STUDENTS

CONTENTS

Reading and Second Language Learners
Research Report

Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction
April 1999

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This document provides a synthesis of the research on teaching and learning to read in English as it relates to students in U.S. public schools who speak little or no English. Focusing attention on children of primary acquisition age (the period between birth and the onset of puberty during which many researchers and theorists consider children to be natural language acquirers), this research summary addresses the following questions:

- What are the prerequisites that children need to meet in order to become proficient readers in English-as-a-second language?
- If English-language learners (ELLs) are experiencing difficulties reading in English, is it a language problem or a reading problem?
- What are the school, program, and classroom characteristics that support the reading development of ELLs?

The following is a summary of the primary findings.

- For children, the acquisition of English-as-a-second language is a developmental process that is similar in many respects to the first-language acquisition process. As a developmental process, second-language acquisition cannot be rushed (although it can be facilitated through effective instructional techniques, the creation of supportive classroom environments, etc.). In fact, research has shown that even in those educational contexts most conducive to second-language acquisition, initially non-English speaking children require five to seven years to acquire a level of English proficiency that allows them to sustain academic achievement at a level equivalent to that of their native-English speaking peers.

- As with their first language, children learn a second language as a result of their need to communicate with others. Their emphasis, particularly during the early stages of the acquisition process, is on getting the meaning of messages across rather than on grammatical form.

- Because second-language acquisition is a developmental process, the linguistic "errors" made by individual ELLs are usually not random, but instead are indicative of the learner's present knowledge of English. These errors provide a picture of the child's growing language proficiency and should be used as insight into the instructional needs of the child.

- Children acquire language naturally and, in the long run, often obtain a higher level of proficiency in a second language than adults. Over the short run, adults learn second languages more quickly than young children. Common misconceptions about the ease with which children acquire second languages are harmful when they produce expectations that are impossible for children to meet. Educators should understand that learning a second language is a process that is just as difficult for a child as it is for an adult, if not more so.

- The ability of an ELL to participate in seemingly effortless communication with his or her peers on the playground or in other "context-embedded" situations is often wrongly perceived as an indication of readiness for English-only instruction in the regular classroom. In fact, the language skills needed by an ELL in such situations are simplistic in terms of their linguistic and cognitive characteristics and should not be considered sufficient for effective functioning within the specialized, "context-reduced" discourse of the mainstream classroom.

- The completion of the first-language acquisition process among ELLs (normally occurring around the age of puberty) is of vital importance. The failure to complete this process may result in cognitive difficulties for the child as well as difficulties in acquiring a second language.

- Children with strong first-language skills will acquire a second-language more quickly than children with less developed first-language skills. Many of the language skills learned in the first language will transfer to the second language.

- Linguistic development, cognitive development, and academic development are interdependent processes and must all be supported simultaneously if educators are to succeed in developing deep levels of English proficiency among ELLs. To do this, schools should provide ELLs with cognitively complex academic instruction through their first language for as long as possible, while providing cognitively complex instruction through the second language for part of the school day. In addition, educators should employ interactive discovery learning approaches to teaching the academic curriculum through both languages.

- ELLs face a number of challenges in learning to read in English. Among these challenges is limited English proficiency itself, due to the critical role English proficiency (especially vocabulary size) plays in reading comprehension. Similarly, ELLs initially lack the phonemic and phonological awareness, as well as an understanding of the alphabetic principle, requisite for learning to read in English. Another challenge involves the fact that the background knowledge that ELLs bring to the reading process is usually very different from the background knowledge presupposed in the English reading material they encounter in the classroom; such a mismatch can interfere with reading comprehension. Finally, ELLs often face sociopolitical challenges such as discontinuities between the culture of their school and that of their home in terms of educational values and expectations.

- Initial reading instruction should be conducted in an ELL's first language whenever possible. Many of the reading skills and strategies acquired in a student's first language can be transferred to English reading.

- Initial reading instruction in an ELL's first language is not detrimental to the child's acquisition of English. On the contrary, initial instruction in the second language can have negative short-term and long-term impact on student achievement.

- Formal reading instruction in English should be delayed until a reasonable level of oral proficiency in English is acquired by the student. During this period, the ELL must be supported in acquiring the requisite "reading readiness" for English, including a sufficiently developed English vocabulary (approximately several thousand words), phonological and phonemic awareness in relation to the English language, and initial awareness of the alphabetic principle. The complex process of providing such support should be carried out while incorporating the students' background knowledge. Furthermore, this process should simulate the developmental process that native-English speakers experience while developing reading readiness at an earlier age. It is recommended that this process be implemented in an age-appropriate way through a challenging curriculum in non-threatening, enriched classroom environments.

- Both before and after the introduction of formal reading instruction in English, ELLs should be immersed in language learning experiences that provide optimal conditions for building the English vocabulary necessary for the domain of school. These activities should be purposeful, meaningful, challenging, contextually rich, and age appropriate.

- Immigrant ELLs who arrive in the United States during their teenage years need extra support to meet high school requirements. It is particularly important that these students receive instructional support through their first language or through intensive sheltered English to do grade level work in that language.

- Testing should emphasize how much an ELL has learned and not how much the child does not know in comparison to a native-English speaker. The standards developed for state and school district performance assessments are based on the typical performance of native-English speakers on these assessments. But because ELLs' lack of English proficiency places them at a disadvantage when taking standardized tests conducted in English, many of these students initially achieve well below this level of typical native-English speaker performance on such assessments. Because of this, while the average native-English speaking student needs to make only ten months worth of academic progress in each ten-month school year to meet these standards, these ELLs must make substantially larger yearly gains to "catch up" with their native-English speaking peers. Given this fact, assessment data reflecting such gains should be viewed as positive, irrespective of whether or not the ELL has achieved the performance standards set for native-English speakers.

- Recent comprehensive studies of programs serving ELLs confirm a strong positive correlation (1) between the long-term academic achievement of ELLs and the degree of instructional support these students receive in their first language and (2) between the amount of formal school ELLs experience in their first-language and the rate at which they acquire English as a second language. In contrast, several earlier studies had reported little difference between various program models (i.e., early exit bilingual, ESL, structured immersion, etc.) in terms of ELL academic achievement and English acquisition outcomes. These studies lack validity due to both their short-term perspective and their limited focus on student achievement in the early grades.

- Programs that provide ELLs with long-term first-language instructional support (i.e., late-exit [developmental] bilingual education and two-way developmental bilingual education) have been shown to succeed in producing long-term ELL achievement in English reading and other academic areas that reaches parity with that of native-English speakers, while programs with little or no first-language support (e.g., structured immersion and early-exit [transitional] bilingual education) do not.

- Programs are not unitary but a complex series of components; programs that share the same nominal label can vary greatly, both in terms of these underlying components and in terms of student achievement outcomes. Therefore, a more sophisticated approach to finding effective methods of educating ELLs is to go beyond a debate over broad programmatic categories to an effort to identify those school- and classroom-level factors that support the academic achievement of these students. Research suggests that the following school- and classroom-level factors are effective in supporting the academic achievement of language-minority students: positive classroom and schoolwide climates; the use of effective grouping strategies; instructional strategies that enhance understanding; the provision of cognitively complex, on-grade-level instruction; the provision of a balanced curriculum; the provision of ample opportunities for students to practice English; school efforts to build school-home collaboration; and effective staff development.

- Several popular reading programs are used to instruct ELLs. Many of these lack published research data to support their effectiveness with this student population. Both Success for All and Reading Recovery have published research relative to these students. While indicators are that both these programs have been used successfully, some findings remain contentious especially with regard to Reading Recovery.

HOW LEP STUDENTS CAN MEET HIGH STANDARDS

The U.S. Department of Education recently reported the results of a study that examined exemplary school reform efforts involving the education of LEP students. The study noted "lessons learned" about what helps LEP students master English while being held to high content standards. These lessons were based on an intensive analysis of eight schools that showed exemplary results in their education of LEP students. This appendix briefly summarizes these lessons.[36]

- **LEP students can and should be expected to participate in high-quality curriculum instruction and performance.** It is not unreasonable to expect good academic achievement and personal development from these students. If a curriculum is properly designed for LEP students, they can learn challenging content in language arts, mathematics, and science while gaining literacy in English. Most schools tend to treat the education of LEP students as a remedial issue, assuming LEP students must learn English before they can learn the standard curriculum designed for "mainstream" students. The exemplary schools show that assumption is not warranted.

- **A comprehensive schoolwide vision that includes high expectations for all students is essential to the success of both mainstream and LEP students.** The entire school community needs to have a shared vision of high expectations, cultural recognition and validation, community involvement and commitment, openness to external partnering and research. In addition, school staff need to be empowered to be leaders, given the time and resources to learn and the freedom to adjust programs as needs change, and involve the whole community in embracing all cultures and languages.

- **A schoolwide approach to restructuring teaching units and time enhances the teaching and learning environment for LEP students.** The schools with exemplary programs worked as a team to restructure their organizations to implement their shared vision. This allowed schools to create and use innovative learning environments that worked for LEP and mainstream students. The schools organized schooling into smaller units to create a more personalized and cooperative learning setting. The schools also promoted teacher collaboration, extended the school day and year, broadened inclusive decision-making structures, and integrated social and health services into school operations.

- **Qualified staff need to engage LEP students in meaningful, in-depth learning opportunities across subject areas.** Trained teachers developed curricular and instructional strategies that put learning in context. Students worked both independently and in heterogeneous groups. The learning situations included hands-on experience and active discovery methods across subject areas. These strategies were effective as long as they were taught by trained and qualified teachers

[36] For more information on the findings, conclusions, and case studies, see *School Reform and Student Diversity,* Volumes I and II, U.S. Department of Education, April 1997.

- **Language development strategies can be adapted to ensure LEP students have access to core curriculum while developing their English language skills.** The eight case study schools all used the LEP students' primary language as a tool to deliver core curriculum instruction. Such instruction was integrated into bilingual programs that gradually transitioned the LEP students into mainstream classes. The transition from classes where instruction was delivered in the primary language to mainstream classes was carefully planned and supported with activities such as after-school tutoring.

- **External partners can have a direct influence on improving educational programs for LEP students.** All the exemplary schools used outside educational research and/or resources to meet their various needs. The partnerships brought new ideas, helped the schools apply the research, and reduced isolation. Using outside resources allowed schools to develop better curriculum, implement instructional strategies, and design effective and meaningful assessment systems.

- **Districts play a critical role in supporting quality education for LEP students.** Districts can actively support schools with LEP students by helping with teacher and aide recruitment, providing professional development opportunities, ensuring access to a high-quality curriculum for all LEP students, providing high-quality instruction materials and assessments in native languages, setting high content and performance standards, and aligning language programs across school levels.

Creating Opportunities for the Academic Success of Linguistically Diverse Students: What Does the Research Say?

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November 2000

Abbreviations Used

ELL	English language learners
ESL	English-as-a-second language
MBE	maintenance bilingual education
TBE	transitional bilingual education

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This paper consists of a review of the current research regarding the schooling of Limited English Proficient (LEP) students. The review draws from seminal studies in the fields of second-language development, education, psychology and linguistics. It is intended to serve as a guide for those charged with program development and implementation for LEP students. The discussion in this report centers on three main topics:

- The effectiveness of various instructional programs for LEP students
- The length of stay of LEP students in various program types
- Factors which influence program implementation for LEP students

The major findings of this report are summarized below:

Effectiveness

- Since bilingual education programs differ widely in quality, poor programs have tended to cancel out the effects of successful programs in evaluation studies and reviews.
- The majority of the studies compare transitional bilingual education and submersion or largely undefined ESL programs. Less data exists to assess the effects of well-defined ESL, structured immersion, maintenance bilingual education, and two-way developmental bilingual programs.
- Primary-language instruction has beneficial effects in programs labeled "bilingual" and programs labeled "immersion."
- The use of primary-language instruction with LEP students contributes to their development of and academic achievement in English.

Length of Stay

- LEP students require several years of support before they develop full English proficiency.
- Successful development of "academic English" requires cognitively demanding curriculum for LEP students.
- Continued development of a child's first language plays a positive role in the development of English.

Program Characteristics

- Programs, which view students' home languages and cultures resources, have achieved successful academic results.
- The education of LEP students requires a school-wide commitment.
- Well-trained and qualified teachers play a vital role in the education of LEP students.

EFFECTIVENESS OF VARIOUS INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAMS FOR ENGLISH-LANGUAGE LEARNERS

According to the 1990 U.S. Census, 6.3 million children in the United States spoke a language other than English at home. In 1993-94, State Education Agencies reported that 7% of all U.S. schoolchildren were English-language learners and that the number of such students was increasing by 10% annually. A variety of instructional programs have been devised and implemented over the last several decades with the goal of effectively instructing this large population of linguistically diverse students. This paper reviews the results of existing research that has evaluated the academic achievement of English-language learners in relation to these instructional programs. In the following box, we identify the six types of programs that appear in this review (labels and descriptions closely follow those provided by August and Hakuta, 1997, pp. 19-20).

Instructional Programs for English-Language Learners in the U.S.

- **Submersion**: Students are placed in regular English-only classrooms and are given no special instructional support. (This approach is illegal in the U.S. as a result of Supreme Court decision in Lau v. Nichols.)
- **English as a Second Language (ESL)**: No instruction in a student's primary language; ESL is taught either through pullout programs or is integrated with academic content throughout the day.
- **Structured Immersion**: Instruction conducted in English to a classroom of English-language learners. An attempt is made to adjust the level of English so that subject matter is comprehensible.
- **Transitional Bilingual Education (TBE)**: Students receive some degree of instruction in their primary language for a period of time; however, the goal of the program is transition to English-only instruction as rapidly as possible (within 1-3 years).
- **Maintenance Bilingual Education (MBE)**: Students receive instruction in their primary language and in English throughout the elementary school years (K-6) with the goal of developing academic proficiency in both languages.
- **Two-Way Developmental Bilingual Programs**: Language majority and language minority students are instructed together in the same program with the goal of each group achieving bilingualism and biliteracy.

A Summary of Key Studies and Reviews

Since the receipt of federal funding for bilingual education requires some form of program evaluation, hundreds of small-scale studies on the effectiveness of bilingual programs have been done over the last 30 years. However, since the late 1970's, a small number of national-level evaluation studies and several reviews of small-scale evaluation studies have dominated the debate about the effectiveness of instructional programs for English-language learners (ELL). While these studies and reviews represent influential scholarly efforts, they reach highly contradictory conclusions. Critics have pointed out a number of serious flaws in each project. Table 1 presents a concise summary of the studies and reviews, their main conclusions, and the significant criticisms leveled against them. Following this table, we discuss several issues raised by the studies and reviews in more detail and draw several conclusions from this discussion.

Table 1 – Key Studies and Reviews of Research on the Effectiveness of Instructional Programs for English-Language Learners

Study	Scope and Method	Conclusions	Critiques
AIR (Dannoff, 1978)	Evaluation of students in 38 federally funded Spanish-English bilingual programs and comparable students not in such programs. (Students were tested twice during one school year.)	Bilingual education had no consistent impact on English-language learners' academic achievement.	1) Lumps together a wide variety of programs under the label "bilingual education." 2) Two-thirds of the children in the "control group" had previously been in bilingual programs.
Baker & Dekanter (1981)	Review of 28 "methodologically acceptable" studies on bilingual education programs that asked whether TBE was more effective than other instructional programs.	No consistent evidence to support the superiority of TBE over alternative forms of instruction.	1) Inappropriate or misleading labeling of programs. 2) Double standard of methodological acceptability excludes studies favorable to bilingual education and includes those that found TBE harmful.
Willig (1985)	Meta-analysis of 23 of the 28 studies reviewed by Baker & Dekanter (eliminating studies done outside the U.S.).	1) Small to moderate effects in favor of bilingual education. 2) The better the research design of a study, the more supportive its findings were of bilingual education.	1) Lack of data in the studies jeopardizes the meta-analysis process. 2) Includes the same study more than once in the analysis. (A common practice in meta-analysis that may compromise the validity of the inferential statistical analysis.) 3) May control for variables that affected program outcomes.
Ramirez (1992)	Longitudinal comparison of over 2000 Spanish-speaking students in structured immersion, TBE, and MBE programs at nine sites. (Five had only one type of program.)	1) After four years, students in structured immersion and TBE programs demonstrated comparable achievement in English. 2) Students in MBE programs showed the most growth in English reading and language skills, and math.	1) Conclusions compromised by non-comparability of sites. 2) No random assignment to immersion and TBE programs within schools. 3) Excessive use of statistical methods to overcome basic design flaws.
Rossel & Baker (1996)	Review of 72 "methodologically acceptable" studies that compare student achievement in TBE and alternative instructional programs.	1) TBE was only occasionally better than submersion and ESL and never better than structured immersion. 2) TBE was worse than structured immersion with regard to English reading achievement in 83% of the cases.	1) Inaccurate and arbitrary labeling of programs. 2) Criteria for methodological acceptability are unclear and applied arbitrarily. 3) 90% of the studies demonstrating the superiority of "structured immersion" were interpreted by their authors as supporting bilingual education. 4) Inaccurate reporting of data from French immersion programs.

Study	Scope and Method	Conclusions	Critiques
August & Hakuta (1997)	Federally funded report of research on language minority schooling that includes a review of national-level and smaller-scale program evaluations.	1) National-level & smaller-scale evaluations suffer from methodological flaws. 2) There is evidence for the benefits of primary-language instruction in various types of programs. 3) Instead of conducting evaluations to determine one best program, research should discover sets of program components that work in particular settings.	The report focuses on research in isolation from theory. Thus, it does not sufficiently consider the research support for theoretical positions that could in turn inform policy.
NYC Public Schools' Division of Assessment & Accountability (2000)	Examined the number of years students were served in ELL programs, their longitudinal progress after exiting, and the characteristics of those who passed the English Regents exam.	1) Consistency of programmatic approach was an important determinant of exit rate. 2) ELL students may require special accommodations to meet the Regents English requirement for graduation.	
Texas Education Agency and Texas A&M University at Corpus Christi (2000)	Review of the significant features of seven elementary school sites with successful LEP programs	1) Extensive training and staff development in bilingual education was important for both teachers and administrators. 2) Effective instruction was not dependent on a specific model of bilingual education, but on instructional focus appropriate for the language and academic levels of students. 3) Parents were supportive and actively involved in the school. There was consistent teacher/parent communication. 4) Spanish and English were used as languages of instruction.	

Learning from the Research

Although the studies and reviews described in Table 1 represent the principal scholarly attempts to address the comparative effectiveness of instructional programs for English-language learners, they clearly fail to resolve the issue. Nevertheless, taken together the research offers a number of lessons regarding the debate over bilingual education and the nature of the research that has fueled it. Building on the information presented in Table 1 and other studies of LEP programs, the following discussion draws conclusions on the effectiveness of programs serving English-language learners.

Sampling. The AIR study (Dannoff, 1978) makes particularly salient the possibility for flaws in the creation of equivalent treatment and control groups necessary for program evaluation. A majority of the students in the

study's control group – i.e., children who were not in bilingual programs during the year of the study – had previously been in bilingual programs. As a result, it is uncertain whether these students' achievement was due to the instruction they received in English-only classrooms or to their earlier experience in bilingual programs. Therefore, as August and Hakuta (1997) conclude, "the AIR study did not compare bilingual education with no bilingual education" (p. 140). Despite this rather fatal flaw, Baker and Dekanter (1981), Willig (1985), and Rossel and Baker (1996) include the AIR study in their reviews of "methodologically acceptable" studies because it did, ostensibly, include a control group. The past educational experience of children reflects just one of the many factors that could render a control group unsuitable and jeopardize the validity of program evaluations. Since random sampling is virtually impossible in the evaluation of instructional programs for English-language learners (parents of English-language learners have choice over the type of instruction their children receive), these factors will likely continue to plague such studies.

Program Labels. The reliance on program labels with little control for the vagaries of implementation in the evaluation studies and the inaccurate and arbitrary use of such labels in the research reviews critically compromise the conclusions of both types of projects. As a program evaluation, the AIR study (Dannoff, 1978) lumped together a wide variety of programs under the label "bilingual education" and made no effort to distinguish between high-quality and low-quality bilingual programs. Thus, as Gray (1977) points out, poorly designed, poorly implemented, and under-resourced programs cancelled out the positive effects of high-quality programs. The reviews undertaken by Baker and Dekanter (1981) and Rossel and Baker (1996) reveal another problem with program labeling: labels appear inaccurately and arbitrarily assigned and thus mislead readers with regard to the instructional programs that they designate. For example, Krashen (1996) and Cummins (1999) point out that the El Paso Independent School District (1987) program and the Peña-Hughes and Solis (1980) program that Rossel and Baker labeled respectively as submersion and structured immersion actually included a consistent primary-language instructional component through Grade 4.

Several scholars have also pointed out Rossel and Baker's problematic inclusion of Canadian French immersion programs in the category "structured immersion" (Cummins, 1999; Dicker, 1996; Krashen, 1996). This critique represents a particularly weighty concern since, as Cummins (1999) points out, "Seven of the 10 studies that Rossel and Baker claim support structured immersion over TBE were studies of French immersion programs in Canada" (p. 29). Bilingualism is the explicit goal of the French immersion programs, which typically immerse English-speaking students in French during kindergarten and Grade 1 and then begin English language arts instruction in Grade 2. While Rossel (1996) has argued that these programs can be considered "structured immersion" up until the point that English-language instruction occurs, they are bilingual enrichment programs designed to promote bilingualism among children who speak the majority language and are members of the majority culture in Canada. The students in these programs experience what Lambert (1975) referred to as additive bilingualism. Additive bilingualism occurs when learning a second language does not threaten the learners' native language. In contrast, subtractive bilingualism takes place when minority-language speakers learn the majority language and in the process lose proficiency in their native language. August and Hakuta (1997) cite the distinction between additive and subtractive bilingualism as an explanation of why:

> …an immersion program in Canada succeeds in teaching French to English-speaking students who continue to maintain full proficiency in English and to function at a high academic level, while an immersion program to teach English to Spanish-speaking immigrants in the United States often results in both a shift to monolingualism in English and academic failure. (p. 32)

Thus, Rossel and Baker's (1996) conclusion about the promise of structured immersion programs for language minority children in the U.S. is actually based on studies that offer little insight into the suitability of immersion instruction for such children. In addition, their claims were based on programs that actually involved primary-language instruction.

Recognizing this type of inaccurate and misleading use of program labels, August and Hakuta (1997) call for careful documentation of program implementation through classroom observation in future evaluation research. More generally, they argue for the need to consider programs according to the specific components rather than comparing programs based on imprecise labels. Based on the evidence, we concur with these conclusions and echo August and Hakuta's well-stated position:

> …the key issue is not finding a program that works for all children and all localities, but rather finding a set of program components that works for the children in the community of interest, given the goals, demographics, and resources of that community. (p. 147)

Lack of Data on Alternative Programs. The vast majority of the evaluation research has compared students in TBE programs with students in no program (submersion) or vaguely defined ESL programs, largely ignoring MBE and two-way developmental bilingual programs. While Ramirez (1992) included MBE programs involving 170 students from three school districts in his evaluation, only programs in one district consistently met the established criterion of 40% Spanish-language instruction throughout the study. Because Ramirez did not compare these MBE programs directly to immersion or TBE programs, the findings regarding the achievement of the students in these programs are bitterly contested. Ramirez emphasized that the growth curve for the students in the MBE program that utilized the most primary-language instruction showed "continued acceleration in the rate of growth" compared to the national norm on an English-language standardized test (p. 25). In contrast, the growth rate of the children in the immersion and TBE programs slowed as grade level increased. Ramirez concluded, "late-exit students appear to be gaining on students in the general population" (p. 25). However, critics of the study suggest that the growth patterns may indicate that the students in the MBE program fell behind peers in other programs during the early grades and thus had to catch up during later grades (Baker, 1992; Rossel, 1992). The point that we consider salient with regard to this dispute is that while the findings suggest that MBE may represent a promising instructional approach for English-language learners, there is no data that incontrovertibly substantiates its effects. Similarly, although many supporters of bilingual education consider the two-way developmental bilingual program as an ideal, there is little data available to assess this model. Mahrer and Christian (1993) reviewed evaluation studies of two-way programs and found that many of the programs evidenced positive language development and achievement outcomes for both English-language learners and native English speakers. However, since most of the studies did not utilize a control group, they do not provide definitive evidence of the superiority of two-way bilingual programs when compared with other approaches.

Longitudinal Data. Many of the evaluation studies have conducted relatively short-term assessment of children in bilingual and English-only programs, measuring achievement over a one- to two-year period. This approach appears particularly dubious in light of the limited longitudinal data available on the achievement of English-language learners. As mentioned previously, Ramirez (1992) found important differences in the growth curves of children in immersion, TBE, and MBE programs during the later elementary grades that favored the children in MBE programs. Similarly, preliminary findings from a study-in-progress analyzing achievement data from a series of 3-6 year longitudinal studies involving 24,000 language minority students indicates that children in two-way developmental bilingual and MBE programs experience a sharp increase in English-language achievement after five to seven years of schooling (Thomas & Collier, 1997). These data suggest that children in certain bilingual programs may make significant gains in English-language achievement toward the end of elementary school – gains that are undetected by program evaluations focused on short-term achievement.

Primary-Language Instruction. Like August and Hakuta (1997), we conclude that Willig's (1985) meta-analysis and Gersten and Woodward's (1995) analysis of the El Paso bilingual immersion programs demonstrate the beneficial effect of primary-language instruction for English-language learners regardless of whether it occurs in programs labeled bilingual or immersion.

In the following box, we succinctly state four key conclusions drawn from the preceding discussion. These conclusions reveal our conviction that existing program evaluation research suffers from a number of serious shortcomings and that by itself provides little conclusive evidence about the relative merit of the range of instructional programs designed for English-language learners. However, in order to bypass this roadblock, the next section presents an alternative perspective on research regarding the schooling of English-language learners that offers important insights into policy and practice.

Conclusions Regarding Program Effectiveness for English-Language Learners

- Existing studies and reviews on program effectiveness for English-language learners are seriously compromised by a number of flaws, including but not limited to the following: 1) lack of random sampling; 2) inaccurate and misleading program labeling and/or widely divergent forms of implementation of similarly labeled programs; 3) lack of longitudinal data; 4) over-reliance on statistical manipulation to correct weaknesses in research design.
- Since bilingual education programs differ widely in quality, poor programs have tended to cancel out the effects of successful programs in evaluation studies and reviews.
- The majority of the studies compare TBE and submersion or largely undefined ESL programs. Less data exists to assess the effects of well-defined ESL, structured immersion, MBE, and two-way developmental bilingual programs.
- Primary-language instruction has evidenced beneficial effects in programs labeled "bilingual" and programs labeled "immersion."

The Instruction of English-Language Learners: Research, Theory, and Policy

The belief that tightly controlled program evaluations can directly inform policy decisions on the schooling of English-language learners represents a fundamental assumption underlying the research reviewed in the preceding section. Cummins (1999) calls this orientation to research the "Research-Policy" paradigm. The Research-Policy paradigm holds that "methodologically acceptable" research that carefully controls for intervening variables can compare student outcomes across programs and thus identify the program that produces superior achievement. Based on findings from such studies, policy-makers can then confidently anoint one instructional program as the best for English-language learners despite differences in settings and situations. Cummins argues that this is an unrealistic and unhelpful way to view research on language minority schooling and the relation of this research to policy. First, he points out that it has proven virtually impossible to conduct the kind of rigorously controlled studies that the Research-Policy paradigm requires. Second, he questions the premise that educational research can be translated directly into policies that apply uniformly across dissimilar settings and circumstances. Third, he suggests that the Research-Policy paradigm's narrow focus on controlled program evaluations ignores a large body of research on the instruction of English-language learners that could inform policy in important ways. After discussing these shortcomings of the Research-Policy paradigm, Cummins argues that an alternative "Research-Theory-Policy" paradigm proves more adequate for understanding the role of research in determining educational policy. The Research-Theory-Policy paradigm assumes that "Research findings cannot be directly applied across contexts" (Cummins, 1999, p. 26). Instead, the findings from individual research studies serve to construct and test theories, which, in turn, can inform policy decisions in different settings. Table 2 summarizes the differences between the Research-Policy and Research-Theory-Policy paradigms.

Table 2 – A Summary of Two Paradigms of the Relationship between Research and Policy

Paradigm	Role of Research in Determining Policy	Research Viewed as Valuable for Policy	Strengths and/or Weaknesses
Research-Policy Paradigm	Research directly guides policy by identifying the superior program model.	Rigorously quantitative studies that compare outcomes of programs while controlling for all intervening variables.	1) Rigorously controlled studies are virtually impossible to conduct. 2) Findings may not generalize across contexts. 3) Ignores a large body of relevant research.
Research-Theory-Policy Paradigm	Research contributes to and tests theoretical principles that explain diverse phenomena. These theoretical principles inform policy decisions.	All research that confirms or disconfirms theoretically generated predictions (including evaluations that compare students' progress to norms and case studies of effective programs).	1) Includes all relevant research. 2) Theoretical principles can be applied flexibly across contexts. 3) Requires carefully considered policy decisions that take into account different local conditions.

As the preceding chart indicates, we find that the Research-Theory-Policy paradigm offers a more powerful way of interpreting educational research and applying it to policy. In the following section, we consider the evidence for three competing theories that could serve inform policy regarding the instruction of English-language learners.

Three Theories Explaining the Academic Achievement of English-Language Learners

Three basic theories have been offered to explain research on the language development and academic achievement of English-language learners: the "maximum exposure" theory, the "linguistic interdependence" theory, and the "spaced learning" theory. Based on the Research-Theory-Policy paradigm, we suggest that if one of these theories proves superior to the other, this theory should play a significant role in informing policy regarding the instruction of English-language learners.

The maximum exposure theory holds that despite a number of intervening variables, the quantity of a learner's exposure to a language will determine his or her success in acquiring that language. Thus, more exposure to English will result in superior acquisition of and academic performance in English. In contrast, the linguistic interdependence principle argues that developing proficiency in one language promotes the development of proficiency in a second language, provided that the learner has sufficient exposure to the second language (Cummins, 1991, 1996). The spaced learning theory (Rossel, 1992; Rossel and Baker, 1996) represents an alternative to the first two opposing theories. This alternative posits the notion of diminishing returns with regard to continuous exposure to a second language in early stages of learning.

Two types of data testify to the explanatory potential of the linguistic interdependence hypothesis. First, as Cummins (1999) points out, data from studies on well-implemented bilingual programs around the world consistently reveal that "Students do not lose out in their development of academic skills in the majority language despite spending a considerable amount of instructional time learning through the minority language" (p. 31). Troike (1978), Krashen and Biber (1988), and Mahrer and Christian (1993) document this kind of pattern for students in bilingual education programs in the U.S., while Cummins and Corson (1997) provide similar evidence from bilingual programs in a number of other countries. Since many of these studies lack control groups, they are ignored in discussions dominated by the Research-Policy paradigm. However, when viewed from the Research-Theory-Policy perspective, these cases provide important evidence supporting the

linguistic interdependence hypothesis. Studies aimed at discovering the relationship between reading across languages represent a second category of findings that support the notion of linguistic interdependence. For instance, studies on Spanish-speaking children in the U.S. (Durgunoglu, 1998; Durgunoglu, Nagy, Hancin-Bhatt, 1993; Faltis, 1986) and on Turkish-speaking children in Holland (Verhoeven, 1994) confirm that children's reading skills in their primary language effectively transfer to reading in a second language. These findings demonstrate that the development of literacy in a primary language contributes to the development of literacy in a second language.

While data from these sources support the linguistic interdependence theory, the maximum exposure hypothesis does not hold up well in the face of evidence from successful bilingual programs. The maximum exposure hypothesis predicts that every program utilizing primary- language instruction (thus decreasing the quantity of children's exposure to the second language) will inhibit students' achievement in the second language. Since a number of studies contradict this prediction (Cummins & Corson, 1997; Gersten & Woodward, 1995; Krashen & Biber, 1988; Troike, 1978), the maximum exposure hypothesis seems to hold little explanatory power.

Rossel and Baker (1996) have introduced a third theory that seeks to explain how children in successful bilingual programs can achieve as well as or better than children in English-only programs on English-language assessments without resorting to the principle of linguistic interdependence. Having described a series of older psychological experiments that show that subjects engaged in highly repetitive tasks, such as memorizing nonsense syllables, perform better when practice is interrupted by rest, they conclude that "a constant barrage of material to learn overloads the memory process and interferes with learning" (p. 38). Rossel and Baker then suggest that this conclusion may explain the experience of language learners who are confronted with continuous instruction in the new language at early stages of acquisition. Since this continuous instruction does not allow the learners to rest "between new words" (p. 39), it may hamper their acquisition of the language. Based on this view, Rossel and Baker suggest that "bilingual education programs, because they provide a needed rest from constant exposure to the new language, can produce better learning at the early stages of learning a second language" (p. 39).

We find Rossel and Baker's (1996) application of the theory of spaced learning to the research on children in bilingual education programs highly speculative. First, there is little reason to believe that findings from experiments involving tasks such as memorizing lists of nonsense syllables contribute any insight into the process of learning a second language. Rossel and Baker themselves point out that "learning a language is not exactly identical" (p. 38) to the boring, repetitive tasks used in the psychological research that they cite. Second, the spaced learning theory simply does not address the transfer of literacy skills across languages or the achievement of children in successful bilingual programs that involve years of primary-language instruction – both phenomena are well-explained by the principle of linguistic interdependence.

Linguistic Interdependence and the Instruction of English-Language Learners

The preceding discussion demonstrates the solid evidence supporting the principle of linguistic interdependence and the lack of support for the theories of maximum exposure and spaced learning with regard to the language acquisition and academic achievement of English-language learners. Consequently, we believe that the theoretical principle of linguistic interdependence represents an important tool for policy-makers and educators concerned with the schooling of English-language learners. While the Research-Theory-Policy paradigm does not seek to provide a definitive conclusion about a single type of instructional program that will be successful for English-language learners in all situations, the principle of linguistic interdependence does contribute the following important insights:

- The use of primary-language instruction with English-language learners contributes to their development of and academic achievement in English;

- Instructing English-language learners only in English does not in and of itself result in superior achievement in English; and
- Children in effectively implemented bilingual programs develop language and literacy skills in two languages and benefit from the transfer of these skills across languages.

While these insights do support the value of bilingual enrichment programs aimed at fostering bilingualism and biliteracy, they must be considered alongside the values, goals, and resources of local settings in order to determine the most appropriate instructional programs for English-language learners. Such an approach would foster flexible policy decisions that are informed by the best research knowledge on the linguistic and cognitive consequences of learning in two languages, and also account for the numerous context-specific factors that influence the academic success of linguistically diverse children. (See Attachment I for a discussion of the legal obligations placed upon districts by the Office of Civil Rights.)

LENGTH OF STAY IN PROGRAMS

As the debate over bilingual education has developed, one criterion that has been presented to assess the effectiveness of particular program types serving LEP students has been the length of time students stay in the particular programs in question. (See Attachment II for a discussion of the 1998 California law which attempts to end bilingual education.) One perspective has held that programs, which exit students at higher and faster rates, are more effective than programs in which LEP students spend more time. From a research perspective, the "faster is better" approach overlooks several important questions related to the way students develop a second language and the amount of time required to do so. In this section of the report, we review how second-language development research informs the discussion regarding factors, which influence the length of stay in programs serving LEP students. The discussion will center on the following questions:

- How long does it take students to develop a second language? What is "academic English?" How is it relevant to LEP students' stay in programs?; and
- What are the characteristics of programs, which best facilitate proficiency in a second language?

The Development of "Academic English:" How Long Does it Take?

For many second-language learners, American schools provide the first significant contact with English (Garcia, 1999). This has raised the question of how long it takes for students to develop proficiency in English. It is a truism of first-language research that most students learn the language spoken in their homes to more or less the same degree. The apparent ease of first-language development has obscured many important facts about the complexity of the process of second-language development (McLaughlin, 1984; de Villiers & de Villiers, 1979; Bialystok & Hakuta, 1994). Several major studies in the area of second-language development have emphasized the long-term nature of the process (Cummins, 1981; Collier, 1987; Snow 1987; Thomas & Collier, 1997; Hakuta, Butler & Witt, 2000). Making the task even more difficult for LEP students is that their development of English occurs in the context of school, which requires a particularly demanding type of language usage. Colliers (1987) explains how the context of schooling confounds the difficulty of learning a second language:

> Immigrant students of school age who must acquire a second language in the context of schooling need to develop full proficiency in all language domains (structures and semantics of phonology, inflectional morphology, syntax, vocabulary, discourse, pragmatics, and paralinguistics) and all language skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing, and metalinguistic knowledge of the language) for use in all the content areas (language arts, mathematics, science, and social studies). Language used in school is unique to that context, and it becomes increasingly complex from one grade to the next (p. 618).

Simply put, LEP students must not only learn the structure of their new language and how to use it a variety of situations, but also how to use it in educational situations. Knowing a language well enough to be able to participate in school contexts requires more than structural knowledge.

James Cummins (1981; 1991), based upon his study of second-language development in children, developed a model introducing two distinct stages of language proficiency. The first stage involves second-language proficiency in an interpersonal level of communication (termed basic interpersonal communications, or BICS). During such communication, language is deeply embedded in context and the language learner is able to rely on nonlinguistic information such as gestures, intonation, and facial cues to facilitate understanding. The second stage involves the second-language proficiency needed for success in school (termed cognitive academic language proficiency, or CALP). Once the learner enters into the dimension of CALP, he or she needs to have mastered higher levels of vocabulary (very often technical in nature), more advanced listening skills, increased reliance on print, and decreased reliance on contextual clues (including nonverbal communication). The tasks the learner is faced with become more cognitively, academically, and linguistically challenging. This transitional developmental "moment," when second-language learners acquire CALP, is the threshold in Cummins' model.

The distinction between these two types of second-language proficiency is of particular importance to LEP students' length of stay in programs. These findings suggest that oral proficiency is not a predictor of success in cognitively demanding learning situations. The findings support the research that in order to build "academic English" of the kind necessary to succeed in programs, students need multiple years of support.

De Avila (1997) documents that LEP students, especially those at intermediate levels of language development, exhibit a large discrepancy between oral language development and reading and writing skills. The author documents that for LEP students who enter school in kindergarten, it is not until grade 5 that lagging reading and writing abilities merge with oral abilities. These finding suggest that removing academic support from students too early might limit their chances to fully develop the range of language skills needed to be successful in academic settings.

In a study of 1,548 advantaged LEP students, Collier (1987) documented that it took between four and eight years to reach the 50th NCE on standardized tests across all subject areas. It is important to note that the students in the sample were receiving significant second-language development support and came from advantaged backgrounds in their home country. The study indicates that even when academic support and home variables are favorable, the process of fully developing a second language takes several years. Collier's findings are significant due to both the size of the sample and the range of ages within the study.

Wong-Fillmore's (1983), qualitative study of four classrooms over three years, examined the language development of Cantonese and Spanish speaking kindergarten students in both bilingual and English immersion classrooms. Using extensive classroom observation data, the study found that 90% of the students had not developed the English proficiency level necessary to "handle its full use in the classroom or in text books" (p. 169). The study confirmed the finding of many of the large quantitative studies that LEP students need several years of cognitively demanding curriculum before their second language is fully developed.

Using quantitative data on 1,210 immigrant students in Canada, Cummins (1981) analyzed the amount of time needed to learn English based on the age upon arrival and the length of residence in Canada. The study showed that it took five to seven years for immigrant students to approach grade level norms on cognitive-academic measures. This study made the initial distinction between "Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills" and language use that is more cognitively and academically demanding.

Hakuta, Butler, and Witt (2000), using recent data gathered from the San Francisco Bay Area and data collected from the Canadian studies (Cummins, 1981), examined English proficiency as a function of length of exposure to English. Examining several factors of student language development, the study concluded that English oral proficiency requires a period of three to five years, and academic English proficiency requires between four and seven years.

These data make the case that even in the best case scenario, second-language development is a process that takes time. We believe that oversimplification of the process of second-language development is in part responsible for the spate of state and national proposals to provide as little as one year of academic language development for LEP students in America. Based on the conclusions of studies related to the length of time required to develop both oral and academic proficiency, we find these proposals to be inadequate in addressing the needs of the LEP students. Consequently, any policy-based discussion of the "length of stay in program" must be rooted in what we know about the time needed to develop a second language.

Factors Which Influence Length of Stay

Much of the early research on language development concentrated on the role that individual differences play in second-language development. This translated to school responses focusing on the "critical period" for second-language learning. The assumption existed that the younger the learner the better. However, several reviews of major research studies concluded that while a critical period exists for first-language learning, this does not apply to the learning of a second language (Bialystok and Hakuta, 1994; August and Hakuta, 1997).

The Role of First-Language Development. Some evidence suggests that continued development of the first language plays a large role in contributing to successful second-language development. Collier (1987) found that LEP children in English-only settings took longer to develop grade appropriate language skills than did LEP students who began English instruction in grades 2-6. Garcia (1999) notes that an LEP students' home language is a tremendous instructional resource. The cognitively demanding task of developing a first language plays a significant role in how a second language is developed. Garcia's findings offer a way of interpreting the findings of Collier (1987). Students who are introduced to a second language before their first language is fully developed may miss out on developing the full range of cognitive skills that comes from complete first-language development.

August and Hakuta (1997) concluded that children's native language proficiency is a predictor of their future English language development. Similarly, Thomas and Collier (1997) found that age of arrival is not an accurate predicator of length of stay in programs because of the significant role that formal schooling in the first language plays in second-language development. In their study, students who arrived from their home country and were placed in ESL classes between the ages of eight and 11 had significant differences in the amount of time needed for English-language development based the amount of schooling they had in their first language. Along these lines, August and Hakuta (1997) added that use of first-language instruction does not hinder English-language development.

In a qualitative study of classroom practice, Wong-Fillmore & Valadez (1986) have shown that the context and nature of instructional settings for immigrant students play a large role in second-language development. They found that students often are placed in instructional settings where the emphasis is exclusively on English, limiting the opportunity for second-language learners to engage in cognitively demanding curriculum.

These studies make the case that continued primary-language development, particularly in literacy and cognitively demanding content areas, can have potential long-term benefits for the development of English (Cummins, 1991; Garcia, 1988, and Wong Fillmore & Valadez, 1986).

Summary

The research reviewed in this report broadens the question regarding length of stay in programs serving LEP children. The report stresses that developing English is a complex developmental process that lasts several years. Major studies in the area of second-language development have documented that even under ideal language learning conditions (advantaged students, support of the home language, and cognitively demanding curriculum) the process can take up to ten years for students to fully develop an academic knowledge of English. In addition to the time of development, the studies reviewed in this report have highlighted the positive role that first-language literacy and development play in the development of a second language.

PROGRAM IMPLEMENTATION

A growing body of research has concerned itself with coming to an understanding of school-wide characteristics that shape program implementation in positive ways. This research has shifted the emphasis away from program types and labels to consideration of the characteristics of schools that contribute to exemplary teaching practices. In addition, the research related to program implementation has examined the role that teacher training and school staffing have played in the effective implementation of programs. We examine two areas of research to address the issue of program implementation and student achievement:

- School-wide characteristics influencing program implementation; and
- The role of properly trained teachers.

School-wide Characteristics

Research on effective implementation of programs has highlighted the connection between students' home culture and the nature of school instruction. Both the National Council of the Teachers of English and the International Reading Association have stated that a school's orientation to a student's home language and culture was vital to successful program implementation. The notion that schools must be responsive to the needs of students and the cultural resources they bring to the classroom is highlighted in a report of the National Association of the Education of Young Children (1997):

> Early childhood education can best help linguistically and culturally diverse children and their families by acknowledging and responding to the importance of the child's home language and culture. Administrative support for bilingualism as a goal is necessary within the educational setting. Educational practice should focus on educating children toward the "school culture" while preserving and respecting the diversity of the home language and culture that each child brings to the early learning setting. (p. 12)

Rather than program name, this analysis indicates that policy-makers must concern themselves with the culture behind particular programs and their orientation toward the students they teach.

A second aspect of successful program implementation is related to school-wide commitment to the goals of successful second-language development. The length of time needed to develop a second language requires that the education of LEP students be the responsibility of the entire school. In an extensive case study of two elementary schools and one middle school, Miramontes, Nadueau and Commins (1997) detailed the process by which exemplary practices for LEP students were connected to school-wide decision-making. In studying the three schools, the authors identified basic premises for effective instruction for LEP students. Their analysis offers policy-makers guiding principles that will influence not only the length of stay in programs but also the nature of the educational experiences within the various program types.

- Active learning. Knowledge is best acquired when learners actively participate in meaningful activities that are constructive in nature and appropriate to the level of development.
- The primary-language foundation. The more comprehensive the use of primary language, the greater the potential for linguistically diverse students to be academically successful. There are always ways to nurture the primary language regardless of school resources.
- Strategies for second-language development. Second-language development creates an added dimension to instructional decision-making. Instruction must reflect specific strategies designed to meet the needs of second-language learners.
- Contexts for second-language development. Second-language instruction must be organized to provide students with the time, experiences, and opportunities they needed to fully develop language proficiency. This requires a range of social and academic contexts in which both language and content are emphasized.
- Sociocultural and political implications. Sociocultural factors and political context must be considered in making decisions regarding every aspect of the program planning.
- Teachers as decision-makers. Teachers are decision-makers. As part of the learning community, they are all equally responsible for decisions regarding the instructional program for linguistically diverse students.

The components outlined for effective programmatic implementation are based upon actual practices that worked in diverse schools with limited resources. They are based in a commitment to viewing the home language and culture of LEP students as an important instructional resource.

In addition to the basic premises highlighted by the work of Miramontes et al. (1997), several studies have highlighted school-wide characteristics that facilitate the education of LEP students. While not dealing with program implementation in a narrow sense, these studies offer a framework for effective program development and implementation. In the following box, we summarize their findings.

Characteristics of Effective Schools

Cultural Validation. Students' home cultures and languages are viewed as instructional resources. In addition to the use of first language in instruction, effective schools supported and developed ethnic identities in students. Cross-cultural understandings were built and maintained (California Tomorrow, 1995; Berman, 1992; Thomas & Collier, 1997).

Shared Vision. Members of the school community shared a commitment to unified goals related to the education of LEP students. This included teachers serving as key decision-makers. The academic success of LEP students was treated as school-wide goal. All teachers in the school community felt responsible for the education of LEP students (Lucas, 1997; Berman, 1992; McLeod, 1996; U.S. Department of Education, 1998; Garcia, 1988).

Protection and Extension of Instructional Time through Coordination. Schools utilized after school programs, cross-age tutoring, and voluntary Saturday school in a highly coordinated fashion to pool resources to serve LEP students (Berman, 1992; McLeod, 1996).

The considerable body of data related to effective schooling for LEP students makes the case that schools must not only be concerned with ensuring that children develop the English-language skill necessary for successful participation in schools, but must also consider the nature of the environment in which that learning takes place. The body of literature reviewed here makes the case that the way the school views the home language and culture of students and the nature of decision-making play significant roles in successful program implementation. In addition, these data make the case that the education of LEP students must be a school-wide endeavor.

Issues Related to Teacher Training

A second issue related to overall program effectiveness relates to the quality of the personnel working in the program. A growing body of research focuses attention on the role that qualified and well-trained teachers play in educational change (Hanushek, 1986, 1992). Research conducted in Tennessee found that teachers defined as "least effective" had actualized only minor gains with their students as compared to teachers defined as "most effective."

A recent study commissioned by the State of Texas (2000) found that high teacher expectations played a role in student success. Teachers in the study were committed to high expectations for their students and this translated into effective practice. August and Hakuta (1997) highlight the role that teacher expectations play in students' development of a second language. Both the role of high expectations and the complexity of second-language learning processes create the need for well-trained and qualified teachers.

Garcia (1992) and Villegas (1991) examined teachers who were identified as "effective" by their schools and districts. The two studies identified distinct and interlocking domains related to effective teaching for LEP students. Three are summarized below.

- Knowledge. Credentialed teachers with specific training in multicultural and bilingual education, high degrees of content area competency, and knowledge of specific strategies for second-language development.
- Skills. Teaching techniques that allow students to focus on meaning, thematic instruction, instruction focused on demanding academic content, and English taught through content areas.
- Disposition. Teachers with a personal commitment to seeing their LEP students become high academic achievers.

Research on teachers' role in academic achievement of LEP students makes a clear case that LEP students need access to properly qualified, highly skilled teachers. The teaching of LEP students has for too long been relegated to uncredentialed teaching assistants. In the face of the research evidence supporting the need for properly trained and highly qualified professionals, it is our conclusion that this trend clearly limits the potential academic success of future generations of students.

ATTACHMENT I

Office of Civil Rights Guidelines for Programs Serving English-Language Learners

To be in accordance with the OCR, districts' ELL programs must include the following components:

- The district's educational theory and goals for its program of services;
- The district's methods for identifying and assessing the students to be included in the district's ELL program;
- The specific components of the district's program of English language development and academic services for ELL students;
- The specific staffing and other resources to be provided to ELL students under the district's ELL program;
- The district's method and procedures for transitioning and/or exiting students from its ELL program, and for monitoring their success afterward;
- The district's method for evaluating the effectiveness of its program for ELL students.

ATTACHMENT II

California's Proposition 227

Proposition 227, known by its proponents as the "English for the Children" initiative, passed with a 61% majority of California voters on June 2, 1998. The initiative was an example of "people making law," written in response to apparent widespread discontent with the state's policies regarding the education of English-language learners in public schools. The passage of Proposition 227 marked a significant event in California's educational history. Never before had the voting public been asked to vote on a specific educational strategy. Curriculum and programmatic decisions for students have generally been the responsibility of the education community. Proposition 227 marked a reversal of this trend. Gándara, et al., (2000) argue that because of this, the law was opposed by every major educational association in the state.

The intent of the Proposition was to end bilingual education. Specifically, the law required that "All children in California public schools shall be taught English by being taught in English" (California Education Code, Chapter 3, Article I. Section 305). The law represents the latest policy move in a long and often contentious debate surrounding bilingual education. California, one of the first states to enact a comprehensive bilingual education bill, has been at the center of that debate. Following the historic Lau vs. Nichols (1974) Supreme Court decision requiring schools to take affirmative steps to ensure the meaningful participation of English learners, the Chacon-Moscone Bilingual-Bicultural Act of 1976 was passed. It declared that "the primary goal of all programs under this article [was], as effectively and efficiently as possible, to develop in each child fluency in English" (California Education Code, 1976, Section 52161), while at the same time ensuring that they had access to the core curriculum. The law established that the preferred manner for doing so was the primary-language instruction.

Rumberger and Gándara (2000) argue that because of the controversy surrounding the preference toward primary-language instruction, no policy action was taken to provide certified bilingual teachers for all English learners. In 1998, only one-third of California's 1.5 million English learner students were in classrooms taught by teachers who held the Bilingual Crosscultural, Language and Academic Development (B-CLAD) credential. Gándara, et al., (2000) stress this point as a crucial part of exposing some of the faulty logic behind Proposition 227:

> Proponents of Proposition 227 contend that bilingual education had failed as a pedagogical strategy and should be abounded. Evidence for its failure was found in the continuing underachievement of English learners and the low rate that English learners were reclassified as Fluent English Proficient. Yet, the fact was, less than one-third of all English learners were enrolled in a bilingual program prior to the passage of Proposition 227, so their poor academic achievement could not be attributed to these programs (Gándara, et al., 2000, p. 5).

Although such information was made available to the California electorate, Proposition 227 passed. The assumption underlying the initiative was that teaching children in their native language served only to hold them back in their acquisition of English and therefore in their future success.

Upon its passage, Proposition 227 became a part of the California Education Code (#300-340). As required within its text, districts throughout the state were given only 60 days for implementation. Under this new education code, children entering California Public Schools with very little English must be "observed" for a period of 30 calendar days. Generally this observation period occurs in an English-language classroom (Gándara, et al., 2000). After 30 days, school personnel must decide if children have enough fluency in English to manage in a mainstream English classroom. If not, they are eligible to receive one year of "Sheltered English Immersion," also referred to as "Structured English Immersion." A program of English language

instruction not described in detail in the law except for the requirement that instruction be "nearly all" in English (with the definition for the term "nearly all" left up to the district's discretion).

After one year, children are normally expected to integrate into mainstream English classrooms, where instruction is required to be "overwhelmingly" in English. If parents or legal guardians find that district or school personnel, including classroom teachers, "willfully and repeatedly refuse" to provide English instruction as required, they have the right to sue for damages. Thus, in order to avoid legal liability it was necessary for teachers and district personal to understand and to implement the law fully. Given the ambiguity of many of the law's provisions, the threat of legal sanction created a great sense of insecurity with many district and school personnel across the state (Stritikus & Garcia, in press).

The only legal alternative to Sheltered English Immersion and/or mainstream English classrooms is the parental waiver process. According to the new law, children who have special language needs, or whose parents specifically request it, can be placed in "Alternative Programs," most likely some form of bilingual program which includes instruction in the child's primary language. In order for a child to be enrolled in an Alternative Program, the parent or guardian must visit the school annually and sign a waiver requesting the placement. However, the first year a child enters California schools she must go through 30 days of "observation," generally conducted in English language classrooms, even if she has a signed waiver. Once the 30 days is completed, the child can enroll in an Alternative Program.

Despite its attempt to prescribe a uniform solution for the education of linguistically and culturally diverse students across the state, the law's impact on educational services for language minority students has varied widely from district to district, school to school, and in some cases classroom to classroom. Garcia, Curry-Rodriguez, & Stritikus (in press) report that some districts across the state have used the waiver clause of the law to pursue district wide waivers, others have implemented the English Only provisions of the law, and a third group has left the primary decisions up to individual schools. Districts with longstanding histories of bilingual programs were more likely to pursue parental waivers in order to maintain their existing programs than were districts with weaker primary-language programs (Gándara, et al., 2000; Garcia, et al., in press).

The Gándara, et al. study of the initial implementation of Proposition 227 in 22 schools in California found that the new law and the statewide emphasis on high stakes assessment caused teachers to shift their focus from broader meaning based literacy activities such as story telling and reading for meaning, to skill-based literacy activities to be tested on the statewide assessment. In classrooms observed in the study, literacy instruction became more reductive and narrow in scope. Language and literacy were rarely used as tools in overall academic development. Heavy emphasis was placed on decoding and oral development.

Making Sense of Test Data

Several national newspapers including The New York Times and The Los Angeles Times ran stories in the days following the release of California's SAT-9 scores. A headline on the front page of The New York Times read, "Increase in Test Scores Counters Dire Forecasts of Bilingual Ban" (The New York Times, 2000, August 20). Bilingual education has taken a front and center position in national discourse. As an excerpt from the Mercury News indicates, the examination of the influence of Proposition 227 has focused on rising test scores. Student performance on the SAT-9, a test considered by many test experts to be an inaccurate and inappropriate measure of culturally and linguistically diverse students' academic achievement (Garcia, 2000), has become the yardstick by which the success of Proposition 227 is being measured.

Further analysis of the test data raises some important critiques about the accuracy of such claims. Analysis of statewide scores by Hakuta and his colleagues (2000) revealed the following problems with the claim regarding the success of Proposition 227 based on test scores:

- SAT-9 scores increased just as much in some school districts that retained bilingual education.
- SAT-9 scores increased in school districts that never had bilingual education, and therefore were not impacted by Proposition 227.
- SAT-9 scores rose for both LEP students and native English speakers. In fact, the rise for native English speakers from poor performing schools was dramatic and larger than for LEP students

The analysis of test scores and the influences that Proposition 227 had on teachers, and classroom practice through the implementation of the law indicates that Proposition 227 is not the "magic bullet" for the education of LEP students.

ATTACHMENT III

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APPENDIX F

END OF YEAR REPORT FORM
SCHOOL YEAR 1999-2000